DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 451 719 FL 026 658

AUTHOR	Fotos, Sandra, Ed.
TITLE	JALT Journal, 2000.
INSTITUTION	Japan Association for Language Teaching, Tokyo.
ISSN	ISSN-0287-2420
PUB DATE	2000-00-00
NOTE	380p.; Published semi-annually.
AVAILABLE FROM	JALT Central Office, Urban Edge Building, 5f, 1-37-9 Taito, Taito-ku, Tokyo, 110-0016, Japan (cover price: 950 yen). Tel: 03-3837-1630; Fax: 03-3837-1631; Web site: http://www.langue.hyper.chubu.ac.jp/jalt/pub/tlt.
PUB TYPE	Collected Works - Serials (022)
LANGUAGE	English, Japanese
JOURNAL CIT	JALT Journal; v22 n1-2 May-Nov 2000
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC16 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	Adult Education; Advertising; Class Activities; *Classroom Techniques; *Computer Uses in Education; Elementary Secondary Education; English for Academic Purposes; *English (Second Language); Foreign Countries; Higher Education; *Instructional Materials; Professional Development; Second Language Instruction; Second Language Learning; Student Evaluation; Student Placement; *Teacher Education; World Wide Web
IDENTIFIERS	Authentic Materials; *Japan

ABSTRACT

This journal (published twice a year) is a publication of the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT), a nonprofit professional organization of language teachers dedicated to the improvement of language learning and teaching in Japan. JALT's publications and events serve as vehicles for the exchange of new ideas and techniques, and a means of keeping abreast of new developments in a rapidly changing field. Each issue includes several sections and departments: feature articles, research forum, perspectives, book reviews, and JALT journal information. Topics highlighted in this volume include the following: English language pedagogy, materials analysis and development, and teacher training needs and issues in Japan, the selection criteria of Japanese university students and teachers, the impact of the cultural concept of "hito," helping Japanese high school students understand patterns in English academic writing, learner perceptions of EFL activities, the use of item response theory (IRT) to inform learner placement decisions, a survey of the conflicting views of the spread of English as the international language, and a discussion of the use of advertisements to provide authentic English for second or foreign language classrooms. (KFT)

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ED 451 719

JALT Journal, 2000

Japan Association for Language Teaching

Volume 22
Numbers 1-2

Sandra Fotos, Editor

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ISSN 0287-2420
¥950

JALT Journal

Volume 22, No. 1
May, 2000

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Layout: The Word Works **Cover**: The Word Works
***JALT Journal* on the Internet**: http://www.als.aoyama.ac.jp/jjweb/

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Japan Association for Language Teaching
A Nonprofit Organization

The Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) is a nonprofit professional organization dedicated to the improvement of language teaching and learning in Japan. It provides a forum for the exchange of new ideas and techniques and a means of keeping informed about new developments in the rapidly changing field of second and foreign language education. Established in 1976, JALT serves an international membership of more than 3,400. In Japan there are 39 JALT chapters and one chapter affiliate, and 13 Special Interest Groups (SIGs), two affiliate SIGs, and one forming SIG. JALT is the Japan affiliate of International TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) and is a branch of IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language).

JALT publishes *JALT Journal*, a semiannual research journal; *The Language Teacher*, a monthly magazine containing articles, teaching activities, reviews, and announcements about professional concerns; and *JALT International Conference Proceedings*.

The JALT International Conference on Language Teaching and Learning and Educational Materials Exposition attracts some 2,000 participants annually. Local meetings are held by each JALT chapter and JALT's SIGs provide information on specific concerns. JALT also sponsors special events such as workshops and conferences on specific themes, and awards annual grants for research projects related to language teaching and learning.

Membership is open to those interested in language education and includes enrollment in the nearest chapter, copies of JALT publications, and reduced admission to JALT-sponsored events. For information, contact the JALT Central Office.

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In This Issue

Articles

This section has seven articles with a strong focus on English language pedagogy, materials analysis and development, and teacher training needs and issues in Japan. In the first paper, **Takashi Miura** describes a new system for analyzing English textbooks used in Japanese senior high school Oral Communication A classes. The system identifies the books' underlying theories and classroom procedures for effective use, and the author notes its applicability for analysis of other English texts. Next, teacher-trainer **Judith M. Lamie** discusses the results of a questionnaire sent to Japanese junior and senior high school teachers investigating the amount and type of teacher training they received, their current instructional aims, and their participation in teacher in-service education. The author concludes that restructuring English teacher education is necessary to achieve the communicative goals set by the Ministry of Education. The next paper is also by a teacher-trainer, **Sandra McKay**, who presents a qualitative analysis of five Japanese English teachers' practicum experience as they pursue a Master's degree in TESOL at an American university. The author suggests that background and personality are more important in determining the trainees' teaching concerns than their nationality, and offers recommendations for improving the practicum experience. Teacher language alternation in the English classroom is investigated by **Yuri Hosoda**, who uses close transcription techniques to demonstrate that teacher codeswitching into Japanese performs social and classroom management functions for Japanese students of English. Next, **Keiko Hirose** and **Miyuki Sasaki** compare teaching metaknowledge about English paragraph writing combined with regular journal writing experience with teaching metaknowledge only. The authors administered the two types of instruction to Japanese university students of English and found that the combination of instruction and journal writing promoted improvement in English language writing mechanics. In the next paper, **Steve Cornwell and Tonia McKay** construct a valid and reliable measure for determining Japanese university students' anxiety about writing in English. Translating and modifying a Writing Apprehension Test developed for students writing in their first language, the authors suggest that their modified version is suitable for use in English language classrooms in Japan. The final paper in this section, by **Ryusuke Yamato**, uses factor analysis to investigate two types of reading strategy awareness among Japanese university students: the students' awareness of the existence of effective language reading strategies and their perception of themselves as strategy users. Based on the findings, strategy instruction pedagogy is recommended.

Research Forum

Michael Guest conducts an exploratory study of the selection criteria Japanese university students and teachers use to identify which vocabulary items are important in a brief passage from a U.S. television drama. He finds differences in the emphasis that teachers and learners place on the significance of many of the lexical items.

Perspectives

In the first paper, **David L. Greer** explores the impact of the cultural concept of *hito* on the English language learning process in Japan and suggests that *hito* may operate against the success of aspects of Western pedagogy such as performance of communicative activities. Next **Kyoko Yamada** recommends instruction on summarization for Japanese high school English students as a way to enable them to recognize and understand patterns in English academic writing.

Reviews

Topics covered in book reviews by **Amy D. Yamashiro**, **Caroline Bertorelli**, **Brenda Dyer**, **Roberta Golliher**, and **Jenifer Hermes** include an introduction to the psychology of language, an exploration of action research on teaching critical literacy, teacher use of reflection and self-evaluation, a discussion of a special type of text-based syllabus, and an analysis of learner cognition and emotion as it pertains to language learning success.

From the Editors

With this issue **Charles Browne** and **Thomas Robb** join the Editorial Advisory Board. We also welcome **Steve McGuire** as a new proofreader.

Conference News

The 26th JALT Annual International Conference on Language Teaching/ Learning and Educational Materials Exposition will be held November 2-5, 2000, at the Granship Shizuoka Conference & Arts Centre, Shizuoka City, Shizuoka Prefecture. The conference theme is "Towards the New Millennium." Contact the JALT Central Office for information.

Cancellation

The editors regret that it was necessary to cancel the November 1999 issue of *JALT Journal* thereby postponing publication of accepted papers. JALT's financial situation made this step necessary.

Retraction

The current editors retract the following article which appeared in *JALT Journal*, Vol. 19 (2): Ahmad Abu-Akel (1997), "On reading-writing relationships in first and foreign languages." Portions of this article were published previously in a 1990 article in *TESOL Quarterly* Vol. 24 (2) by J. Carson, P. Carrell, S. Silberstein, B. Kroll, and P. Kuehn titled "Reading-writing relationships in first and second language." At the request of Bar-Ilan University, Israel, we also retract identification of Mr. Abu-Akel with Bar-Ilan University since he was not associated with that institution in 1997.

Articles

A System for Analyzing Conversation Textbooks

Takashi Miura
Shizuoka University

This paper proposes an aural/oral communicative English textbook analysis system that reveals the language learning theories behind the textbook and identifies the classroom procedures required to use it effectively. To promote systematic analysis I have created a set of scales that measures five major variables determining the characteristics of each text: (a) topic consistency; (b) type of syllabus; (c) frequency of drill use; (d) presence or absence of activities allowing the expression of the students' own ideas; and (e) types of language activities. These variables were generated by analysis of sixteen government-authorized textbooks published in 1995 for Oral Communication A, a new course aimed at developing Japanese senior high school students' ability to converse in English.

本論文は、口頭英語コミュニケーション教材の新しい分析システムを提案し、以って各教科書が依拠する言語理論と学習理論を追跡し、各教科書が教室に創出する授業展開の予測を可能ならしめることを目的としている。本研究では各教科書の特徴を決定づける主要因として、(a) トピックの一貫性、(b) シラバスのタイプ、(c) ドリルの使用頻度、(d) 生徒が自分の考えを述べる活動の有無、(e) 言語活動のタイプ、の五つをとりあげ、各教科書におけるこれらの変数を数量的に測定する尺度を提案している。これらの五つの主要因は、新学習指導要領で開設された高校用オーラル・コミュニケーションA用に1995年に出版された16冊の検定教科書の分析の結果得られたものである。

In this paper I will present a systematic method for analyzing English conversation textbooks. The method was developed to analyze the course books used for Aural/Oral Communication A (OC-A), a new senior high school English core course started in 1995. The course is aimed at developing conversational English ability in the Japanese English as a Foreign Language (EFL) high school instructional setting, where word-to-word translation and grammatical explanation of written text have played a dominant role for over a century.

With the advent of the new Monbusho *Course of Study* (Monbusho, 1989) announced by the Ministry of Education in 1988 and initiated in April 1994, textbook writers have been obliged to start promoting aural/

oral communication skills. The result has been publication of various kinds of textbooks claiming to contribute to the development of aural/oral communicative ability. This kind of diversity is not only limited to OC-A textbooks, but is common to all textbooks for teaching English skills (for example, see Fortune's 1998 analysis of six EFL grammar texts). Regarding oral skills, Richards (1990) talks about the complexity of teaching conversation classes where the content and activities of textbooks vary from low-intervention communication tasks and games to highly structured teacher-fronted tasks or from free conversation to structured situational dialogues.

Because of this variability, it is important for teachers to select a textbook that suits their beliefs about the nature of language and language learning and engenders the kind of language activities they desire. Of course, at the same time teachers should continually explore these beliefs in the light of classroom outcomes and the latest developments in the fields of language acquisition and language teaching methodology.

Developing a Textbook Analysis System

The study presented here is based on a 1995 to 1997 analysis of sixteen Japanese government-authorized OC-A textbooks published in 1995. The textbooks were revised in April 1998 so this analysis is based on the pre-revision versions. However, the analysis system is independent of the books analyzed and is therefore applicable to a wide range of textbooks with similar components: model conversations, listening practice, comprehension questions, key expressions, language drills, language activities, and tasks.

Analysis versus Evaluation

In this paper I have avoided the term "evaluation," using "analysis" instead, since the former term often implies value judgments on the part of the evaluators. Rather, I propose a neutral analysis system composed of a set of scales, each representing a different analysis criterion. Such a system will promote a more objective assessment of textbooks and the data obtained will provide common ground for discussion regardless of teachers' preferences for various approaches and methods.

When creating an analysis system, it is not sufficient to merely propose a set of criteria for analysis, since the criteria themselves are not free of subjective assessment. In order to make them mutually compatible it is necessary to create a common numerical scale. Once such a scale has been established, it enables a quick review of the characteristics of the textbooks (see Appendix). Another advantage is that the analysis system can be used on any textbook or different versions of the same textbook, a significant point considering the frequent revisions of government-authorized textbooks in Japan. A third advantage is that by changing the content of the scales, the system can be converted into an analysis system for other types of textbooks, such as those used for writing.

Research Focus

What characteristics do the sixteen 1995 OC-A textbooks listed below (Table 1) share? Where are they different? These were the initial questions I considered. I read through the units of the textbooks and identified a number of similarities and differences, discussed below.

Table 1: The Sixteen Oral Communication-A Textbooks Surveyed

Active English Communication A (Ogawa et al., 1995)
Birdland Oral Communication A (Yoshida et al., 1995)
Echo English Course Oral Communication A (Yamamoto et al,, 1995)
English Street Oral Communication A (Hazumi et al., 1995)
Evergreen Communication A (Sasaki et al., 1995)
Expressways Oral Communication A (Suzuki et al., 1995)
Hello, There! Oral Communication A (Jimbo et al., 1995)
Laurel Oral Communication A (Tanabe et al., 1995)
Lighthouse Conversation (Takebayashi et al., 1995)
Mainstream Oral Communication A (Ando et al., 1995)
New Start English Communication A (Hanamoto et al., 1995)
Oral Communication Course A Interact (Ishii et al., 1995)
Sailing Oral Communication A (Toyoda et al., 1995)
Select Oral Communication A (Kitade et al., 1995)
Speak to the World Oral Communication A (Bowers et al., 1995)
The New Age Dialog (Araki et al., 1995)

Note: Only the first author is listed since some books have many authors. See the references for all of the authors' names.

Similarities

There were only a few similarities. All textbooks had a similar format for each unit consisting of about 8 to 15 lines of a model conversation accompanied by listening practice, comprehension questions, key expressions, language drills, language activities, and tasks. None of the textbooks contained authentic material, but there were a few textbooks aimed at generating authentic classroom use of the target language.

Differences

The textbooks were different in the following areas:

1. Topic consistency;
2. Types of syllabuses;
3. Frequency of the use of drills;
4. Presence or absence of activities allowing students to produce language expressing their own ideas;
5. Types of language activities: (A) interactive or non-interactive; (B) creative or non-creative.

These five areas were used as the basis of my analysis and in the following sections I will describe these areas and propose practical measurement scales for analyzing them.

Results and Discussion

The results of the textbook analysis are summarized in the Appendix. This section will discuss the different scales, using examples from the textbooks to show their application.

Scale 1: Topic Consistency-Topic Inconsistency

One prominent difference in the textbooks was how topics were treated, specifically, whether a textbook had *topic consistency* or *topic inconsistency* in its units. Topic consistency means that the same topic is used throughout the textbook unit or chapter. A topic-consistent unit tends to emphasize content and the exchange of ideas; it provides students with a set of key words, expressions, and concepts related to a given topic to stimulate and promote students' communication in the target language. What follows is an example of a topic-consistent unit in an OC-A textbook. Here the topic of "sport" is used in all of the unit components:

From *Hello, There! Oral Communication A* (Jimbo et al., 1995, Unit 6, pp. 42-45):

Unit title: My Favorite Sport.

Part 1 (1) Model dialogue 1 (12 lines about TV sport broadcasting) with tape-recorded comprehension questions
(2) Guided conversations (students' favorite spectator sports and their opinions about different sports)

Part 2 Model dialogue 2 (inviting friends to go skiing) with tape-recorded comprehension questions

Part 3 Task A: Interviewing peers using the following questions:

1. What kind of sports do you like?
2. Do you play it or do you just enjoy watching it?
3. Are you good at it? / Who's your favorite player?

Task B: Reporting the results of interviews to the class

Example: "Kumi likes soccer. She doesn't play it. She just enjoys watching it on TV. Her favorite soccer player is Kazu Miura."

In a topic-inconsistent unit, the topics may vary from one activity to another in the same unit, vary from one utterance to another even in the same exercise, or a topic as such is not identifiable. In a topic-inconsistent unit the emphasis is not on the content but on a particular language form or function. The instructional goal is to give students focused practice and/or drilling of the target language structure. Below is an example of a topic-inconsistent unit.

From *Laurel Communication A* (Tanabe et al., 1995, Unit 9, pp. 44-46):

Unit title: I'm Sorry I'm Late.

(1) A model dialogue on the topic of "appointment," with Japanese translation
(2) Key expressions: "I'm sorry I'm late." "That's all right." "Excuse me."
(3) Presentation of conversation gambits: I'm sorry/No problem; I'm sorry/Don't worry about it.
(4) Exercise A: Complete apologies, filling phrases from the attached list into the parentheses.
    1. I'm sorry (I broke your window).
    2. I'm sorry (I didn't finish the work).
    3. I'm sorry (I forgot to buy the magazine).
    4. I'm sorry (I didn't cook your egg right).
(5) Exercise B: "Say, 'Excuse me,' and then explain why you must leave, using phrases from the attached list in parentheses."
    1. Excuse me. I (have to see someone).
    2. Excuse me. I (want to use the bathroom).
    3. Excuse me. I (have to get back to my work).
    4. Excuse me. I (want to make a phone call).

Here the topic shifts from appointments to baseball, jobs, books, cooking, biological needs, and telephoning. Sometimes a topic is unidentifiable; the focus of the unit is not a topic but use of "I'm sorry" and "Excuse me."

Scale 2: Syllabus Organization

A second difference is syllabus organization. "Syllabus" refers to the principle of choosing and ordering the textbook content. Richards, Platt, and Platt (1992) explain that by identifying the type of syllabus used it is possible to understand the focus and contents of a course and whether the course will be structural (emphasizing grammar and vocabulary), situational (emphasizing language needed in various situations), or notional (emphasizing communicative functions). Although these researchers describe a course syllabus, their definition is applicable to the study of a textbook syllabus as well. The procedure used here for analyzing the syllabus of each textbook is as follows:

1. Analyze the basis of the organization of each unit. Is it a structure, a function, a topic, a situation, a skill, or something else?
2. Determine whether the same pattern of organization is used throughout the units in the textbook. If so, then this organization represents the syllabus. If some of the units are organized according to a certain principle (structural, for example), but the others are organized according to another principle (functional, for example), the textbook is considered to have a mixed syllabus.
3. Determine whether the textbook has a subordinate principle or sub-syllabus. A textbook written according to the principles of a certain type of syllabus may also have a sub-syllabus or a different type of organization for some parts of the unit. For example, in a textbook with a topical syllabus, part of each unit may be devoted to presenting language functions.

Nunan (1991) notes that, "beliefs on the nature of learning can also be inferred from an examination of teaching materials" (p. 210). The OC-A textbooks published in 1995 are written according to one or two of the following four types of textbook syllabuses: functional, topical, structural, and/or situational (see Appendix). The next section examines features of each syllabus type.

Structural Syllabuses

In a structural syllabus the textbook contents are arranged according to the structural components of the language, reflecting the following structuralist view of language:

> Learning a language . . . entails mastering the elements or building blocks of the language and learning the rules by which these elements are combined, from phoneme to morpheme to word to phrase to sentence (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p.49).

The example below shows the first five units of an OC-A textbook with a structural syllabus. Although the unit titles do not include any structural metalanguage, the emphasis on structure is clear from the type of exercises included.

From *Birdland Oral Communication A* (Yoshida et al., 1995, pp. 8-17):

Unit Titles	Exercise Types
1. In the Morning	(conversion) I open the door. (He) He is opening the door.
2. The Last Two Tickets	(substitution) Thank you for__ing.
3. Rain or Shine	(rejoinder) I think so, too. / I don't think so.
4. Going to School	(conversion) I wait for the bus. (She) She is waiting for the bus.
5. Going out to Dinner	(rejoinder) Really? I don't believe it. / That sounds great.

There are seven OC-A textbooks with structural syllabuses, one with a structural main syllabus, and six with structural sub-syllabuses (see Appendix).

Functional Syllabuses

In a functional syllabus, also called a notional-functional syllabus, the textbook content is arranged according to the purposes for which the language is used. It reflects the view that "language is a vehicle for the expression of functional meaning" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 17). There are six OC-A textbooks with functional main syllabuses and eight with functional sub-syllabuses (see Appendix). A typical example is *Evergreen Communication A* (Sasaki et al., 1995); here the units are arranged according to functions such as "greeting," "requesting," "inviting," and "accepting."

Topical Syllabuses

A topical syllabus is one in which each unit concentrates on a particular topic such as "school life," "hobbies," or "health," and the content is arranged according to a series of topic headings. In the EFL situation in Japan, where there is little need for students to speak English outside the classroom, choosing appropriate topics is essential for enhancing students' motivation to participate in class.

None of the sixteen OC-A textbooks are written exclusively according to a topical syllabus. However, there are nine that partly employ topical syllabuses (see Appendix). For example, in *Active English Communication A* (Ogawa et al., 1995), eleven out of sixteen units are written according to a topical syllabus, with topics such as "school life," "family and relatives," "eating out," and "shopping."

Situational Syllabuses

A situational syllabus is one in which the textbook content is organized according to situations in which certain language is used, such as "at the airport," "at the doctor's office," and "in the classroom." There is one OC-A textbook written mainly according to this syllabus type and another with a situational sub-syllabus (see Appendix). In *Expressways Oral Communication A* (Suzuki et al., 1995), for example, the first ten units are written according to a situational syllabus consisting of situations such as "at the immigration office," "taking a taxi," "at dinner," "at a home-stay," and "at a bank."

Scale 3: The Use of Drills

Defining Drills

The third difference among the various OC-A textbooks surveyed is the use of drills. Here "drill" refers to language practice exercises such as "repetition, substitution, and transformation drills" (Richards, Platt, & Platt, 1992, p. 117) in which students are required to produce utterances that contain target language elements for the purpose of "mastering the elements" (Richards and Rodgers, 1986, p. 49) rather than "using language for meaningful communication" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 131). Some textbooks make extensive use of substitution drills and transformation drills, as in the following example.

> From *Birdland Oral Communication A* (Yoshida et al., 1995, Unit 10, pp. 8-17)
>
> Exercise A: "Convert these sentences, following the example."
>
> (e.g.) I do the exercise. (He) He will do the exercise.
> 1. I ask my teacher a question. (She)
> 2. I look up a word in the dictionary. (My sister)
> 3. I take notes. (Tom)
> 4. I read my textbook. (They)

Here students are asked to produce utterances not for the purpose of conveying meaning but to master the "future auxiliary 'will' plus root-form verb" and the use of personal pronouns.

Theory Behind Drills

Richards and Rodgers (1986) note that extensive use of drills is a feature of audiolingualism reflecting structural linguistic theory and behaviorist psychology. It is possible to determine whether a textbook is based on structùral and behaviorist beliefs by counting the number of drills used in each unit. This procedure enables us to penetrate the surface organization of a textbook, for even among textbooks with functional or topical syllabuses there are some exercises consisting of audiolingual drills, as in the previous example of the unit entitled "I'm Sorry I'm Late."

The calculation of drill frequency is done by selecting a typical unit and calculating the percentage of activities and/or exercises which belongs to the category of "drills," as defined above.

Scale 4: Activities for Students to Express Their Own Ideas

The fourth scale addresses activities that allow students to express their own ideas. The opposite of drills, such self-expression activities focus on meaning rather than on form and allow the student to generate their own language. The need to include activities for self-expression in OC-A textbooks is emphasized in the Monbusho's *Course of Study* (Monbusho, 1989) for OC-A, since this activity type is considered effective for enhancing students' motivation to participate in classroom activities. McDonough and Shaw (1993, cited in Edwards, Shortall, Willis, Quinn & Leek, 1994) stress the importance of such materials to involve learners in meaningful talk to enhance learning.

Features of Self-Expression Activities

Letting students express their own ideas in the target language in a Japanese EFL classroom is no easy task. I have previously suggested (Miura, 1991) that preliminary activities must be used to provide essential background for the students before they attempt self-expression activities. Such precommunicative activities provide students with the motivation, ideas, lexical items, and discourse models that will culminate in successful self-expression.

Though many of the OC-A textbooks contain seemingly self-expression activities, they lack preliminary activities to provide the students with the necessary information and language items to facilitate their conversation. In the unit below, for example, the "Communicative Activity" at the end of the unit is completely isolated from the preceding activities in terms of both language and content:

From *The New Age Dialog* (Araki et al., 1995, Unit 11, pp. 44-47):

Unit title: Beth Looks Back on the Summer.

(1) Model dialog on summer vacation and comprehension questions;
(2) Rejoinder drills on traveling;
(3) Guided conversation on summer vacation;
(4) Dialog completion drills on a high school baseball tournament;
(5) Communicative Activity: "Form two groups in the class, one favoring baseball and the other favoring soccer, and discuss why these two sports are fun."

In this example, the students are abruptly required to explain their preference for baseball or soccer without having been provided with enough information to discuss the sports, necessary lexical items to use, or discourse models to follow. Such isolated tasks do not seem to lead to self-expression in the ordinary EFL classroom in Japan and therefore cannot be counted as self-expression activities. Rather, I suggest that successful self-expression activities are:

1. Activities that motivate students to express themselves in short speeches or conversation on topics related to themselves;
2. Activities that accept and encourage original answers or utterances;
3. Activities that are preceded by sufficient models and accompanied by sufficient linguistic aids to allow students to accomplish the task successfully.

While discussing Scale 1, I introduced the unit "My Favorite Sport" as an example of a well-constructed self-expression activity in which simpler activities, activities (1) to (6), have been carefully organized to help students express their own views in the final two activities.

Self-expression activities tend to require lengthy preparation, so it is rare to find more than one such activity in each unit. I have counted the total number of self-expression activities in each textbook and found that there are only five books that contain one self-expression activity in each unit, six contain them in only some units and the remaining five books contain no activity of this type (see Appendix).

Scale 5: Interactive and Creative Activities

The final measure of differences among the 16 textbooks deals with the interactive, creative nature of the activities used. These concepts are operationalized as described below.

1. Interactiveness: Activities are interactive if it is necessary for the students to participate in conversational exchanges in the target language with their speech partners;

2. Creativeness: Activities are creative if they allow students to create meaning and language for themselves instead of merely repeating predetermined utterances (e.g., substitution drills).

Interactive/Noninteractive Activities

As mentioned, interactive activities require a conversational exchange between students whereas noninteractive activities can be performed alone, without an interlocutor. Below is an example of a noninteractive activity.

> From *English Street Oral Communication A* (Hazumi et al., 1995, Unit 7, p. 32):
>
> Activity 2: "Perform a dialogue practice according to the example, substituting the underlined parts with the phone numbers in 1-4."
>
> [example] A: Hello. May I speak to Kate?
> B: I think you have the wrong number. What number are you calling?
> A: 221-7313.
> B: This is 211-7313.
> A: Oh, I'm sorry.
> 1. 2-8988 / 2-8998 2. 38-3563 / 38-3536
> 3. 872-0130 / 872-0930 4. 3527-6938 / 3257-6938

It is doubtful whether this activity will promote meaning-focused interaction because the students do not have any reason to interact. In addition, this activity can be performed alone since the necessary information is already present. In such activities the existence of an interlocutor is unnecessary; therefore they are categorized as noninteractive. In this respect, Breen and Candlin (1987) suggest that materials for classroom work should have different features from materials that focus on individual language learning to encourage mutual language discovery among learners.

Let us compare the example above with Tasks A and B in *Hello, There!* (Jimbo et al., 1995, p. 45) discussed earlier. In Tasks A and B the students ask their classmates about their favorite sports to obtain the required information and report it to the class. Here the presence of interlocutors is necessary to perform the activity.

By employing the interactive/noninteractive distinction it is possible to identify the approach that underlies an activity. "Activity 2" in *English Street* (Hazumi et al., 1995) reflects behaviorist habit-formation theory in which "learners play a reactive role by responding to stimuli" (Richards

& Rodgers, 1986, p. 56). On the other hand, Tasks A and B reflect communicative theory in which "language learning comes about through using language communicatively, rather than through practicing language skills" (Richards & Rodgers, 1986, p. 71). It should be noted that the Monbusho's (1989) *Course of Study* for OC-A puts a special emphasis on interactiveness, stressing development of the ability to *talk with others* (italics mine) about familiar matters, using expressions appropriate to the given situation and purpose" (pp. 32-34).

Creative Activities

The textbook survey shows that OC-A textbooks have different approaches to the creativity of activities. Some textbooks contain numerous activities that allow students' creative utterances (indicated as "creative" in the Appendix), while others contain activities that only accept predetermined utterances (indicated as "non-creative"). An example of a creative activity has already been given: Tasks A and B in *Hello There!* (Jimbo et al., 1995, p. 45). These tasks have a number of features which have been identified as likely to stimulate second language acquisition processes in the classroom (discussed in Ellis, 1994), and will most likely result in the following positive learning outcomes:

1. Students will be motivated to learn the interview questions by heart for the purpose of actually using them to obtain meaningful information from their classmates (Tasks A and B).
2. There is no predetermined answer provided so students are required to practice hypothesis testing (Brown, 1987, p. 168) in order to create their own utterances (Tasks A and B).
3. Interviewers will have to listen to interviewees carefully because they cannot predict what the latter will say (Tasks A and B) and the responses must be written down.
4. Interviewers and interviewees will be obliged to negotiate meaning in order to understand the novel utterances created by their speech partners (Tasks A and B).
5. Students will "get to know each other personally" (Krashen & Terrell, 1983, p. 73) through the exchange of personal information (Task B).
6. Students will listen to their classmates report about each other and further get to know each other (Tasks A and B).
7. Students' performances will be evaluated according to multiple criteria such as the quality of content and the correctness of form (Tasks A and B).

When developing creative activities, "unpredictability" and "negotiation of meaning" (Edwards et al., 1994, p. 103) constitute important requirements for tasks for spoken communication. Without a certain degree of unpredictability, communication does not take place. Nunan (1991) emphasizes that "if language were totally predictable, communication would be unnecessary (i.e. if I know in advance exactly what you are going to say, then there is no point in my listening to you)" (p. 42). Also, hypothesis testing is considered to be important in communicative language acquisition theories (see Ellis, 1994). Those teachers who emphasize meaning over form will place more importance on unpredictability, negotiation of meaning, and hypothesis testing in their classrooms than those who emphasize form over meaning.

Noncreative Activities

At the other end of the creative/noncreative scale are activities that give no provision for students to produce their own utterances, as shown in the example below.

> From *Laurel English Communication A* (Tanabe et al., 1995, Unit 12, p. 60):
>
> Activity A. "Work in pairs. One person should ask, 'Can I~?'.
> The other person should answer yes or no."
> (1) use a calculator, (2) take this book home, (3) take pictures in this museum
> Activity B. "This time practice saying, 'You're not supposed to ~,' as in the example. Use the same questions as in Activity A."
> [Example]
> A: Can I use a calculator?
> B: No, you can't. You're not supposed to use a calculator.

These activities are mechanical substitution drills. Their purpose is to reinforce the target structure "Can I ~?," and there is no connection between the utterances and students' real life.

What types of learning outcomes are noncreative activities likely to promote? The following outcomes seem probable:

1. Students will be required to produce the utterances correctly, for there is no other goal.
2. Students do not have to pay attention to what their partner says, because he/she knows beforehand what will be said. This means that there will be no hypothesis testing or negotiation of meaning involved.

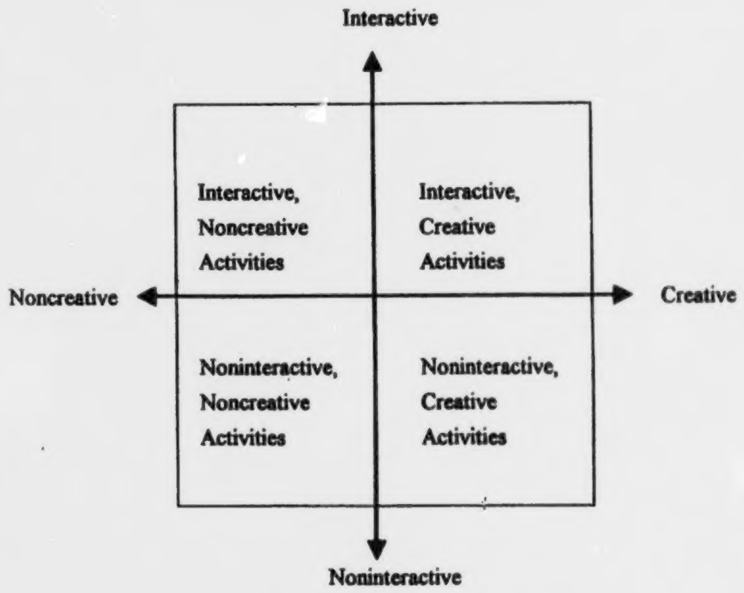
3. There will be only one criterion of evaluation for this activity, the correctness of form.
4. As a result, teachers who are not confident in their own EFL ability will be able to teach this activity.
5. The activities do not facilitate socialization or personal understanding among students.

These learning outcomes seem almost negative. However, in terms of manageability they have positive aspects for EFL teaching in Japan because the great majority of English teachers in Japanese secondary schools are nonnative English speakers, and some lack the confidence to use unstructured oral activities. Most of the 16 textbooks contain both creative and noncreative activities. This is understandable when we consider the general tendency for language activities to proceed "from controlled to free practice" (Hubbard, Jones, Thornton, & Wheeler, 1983, p.187).

A Two-Axis Scale

To graphically represent the features of the activities discussed in the previous two sections, I propose a two-axis scale, as shown in Figure 1. The horizontal axis indicates the creative/non-creative distinction, and the vertical axis indicates the interactive/noninteractive distinction.

Figure 1: A Two Axis Scale for Analyzing Conversation Textbook Activity Type Balance


Interactive
Interactive, Noncreative Activities
Interactive, Creative Activities
Noncreative
Creative
Noninteractive, Noncreative Activities
Noninteractive, Creative Activities
Noninteractive

This gives four cells in the diagram:

1. Noninteractive, noncreative activities (the bottom left-hand cell in Figure 1):

This type of activity is not interactive and does not require creative utterances. Included in this type are repetition drills, substitution drills, transformation drills, and oral translation from the student's native language to English. The classroom relationship is basically between the teacher and isolated students, and the focus is on mastering a target language element. The following practice exercise is an example of a noninteractive substitution drill.

From *New Start English Communication A* (Hanamoto et al., 1995, Unit II-1, p. 21):

Let's Practice B: Substitute the underlined parts with the words provided below and practice the expressions.

Tell me about your school year.
1. ...... us ....country.
2. ....family.
3. ....girlfriend.

2. Noninteractive, creative activities (the bottom right-hand cell in Figure 1):

This type of activity is not interactive, but allows creative utterances. Included in this type are guided oral composition and guided conversation. The activities may take the form of a dialogue, but a student does not necessarily need to interact with anyone else to complete the task. Below is an example of such an activity.

From *Select Oral Communication A* (Kitade et al.,1995, Unit 7, p. 45):

"Talk about your future dreams, filling proper words in the underlined parts."

What do you want to be in the future? – I want to be _____.
What country would you like to visit? – I'd like to visit _____.
If you had enough money, what would you like to buy? – I'd like to buy _____.

3. Interactive, noncreative activities (the top left-hand cell in Figure 1):

Included in this type are closed information gap activities that require oral interaction between two or more students but do not allow the students to use original utterances. Since they elicit only predetermined utterances, it is easy for both teachers and students to judge correctness. For example, *Oral Communication Course A Interact* (Ishii et al., 1995, pp. 8, 44, 60, 84-86) uses three two-way information gap activities in which one student looks at a table of information and the other student looks at a different table, and they exchange information from their respective tables.

4. *Interactive, creative activities* (the top right-hand cell in Figure 1): These activities require interaction between two or more students, and at the same time encourage students' original utterances. Included in this type are open information-gap activities and task-based activities. Below is an example of such an activity.

> From *Echo English Course Oral Communication A* (Yamamoto et al., 1995, Unit 15, p. 57):
>
> "You have received a letter from your friend in America. S/he is asking you for some tourist information about Japan. Ask these questions to several of your classmates, and record their answers in a table, following the example."
>
> I want to visit Japan sometime next year.
> Tell me:
> What time of the year do you recommend to visit Japan?
> What places do you recommend to visit?
> What things do you recommend to see or do?
> What do you recommend to buy for souvenirs?
>
> Example:

name	time	place	things to see/do	souvenirs
Kiyomi	April	Kyoto	cherry blossoms	Kiyomizu-yaki
Makoto	May	Shizuoka	ride the Shinkansen	green tea

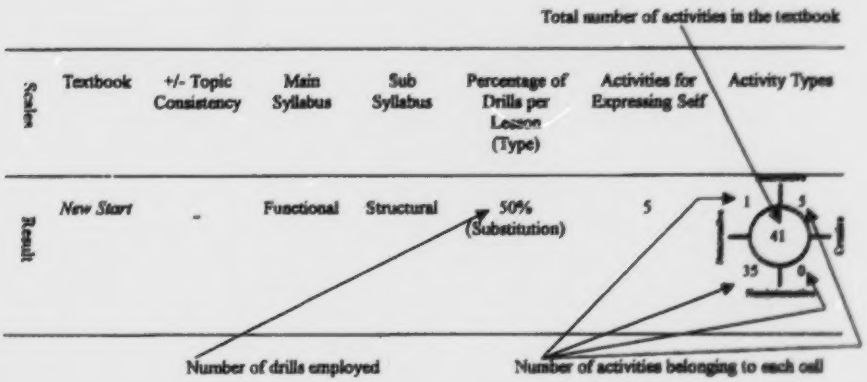
This activity requires student-student interaction. Although the interview questions are predetermined, there is no control over the form of the responses. Both the form and content of the responses depend on the interlocutor. In this type of activity, learning can occur through the target language exchange of personal opinions among the members of the classroom community.

Combining the Scales

I have proposed five scales for analyzing OC-A textbooks: (a) topic consistency; (b) syllabus types; (c) number of drills per unit; (d) number of activities for expressing students' own ideas; and (e) activity types (interactive and creative versus noninteractive and noncreative). Figure

2 is an analysis chart of these five scales and their subcategories, accompanied by some guides for interpreting the figures in the table.

Figure 2: Aural/Oral Communication Textbook Analysis



	Textbook	+/- Topic Consistency	Main Syllabus	Sub Syllabus	Percentage of Drills per Lesson (Type)	Activities for Expressing Self	Activity Types
Scales							
Result	*New Start*	-	Functional	Structural	50% (Substitution)	5	1 5 41 35 0

Total number of activities in the textbook
1
5
41
35
0
Number of drills employed
Number of activities belonging to each cell

Conclusion

Textbooks which appear similar often have different approaches, but it is usually only after we have started using a certain textbook that the mismatch between our beliefs and those of the textbook writers becomes clear. How can we avoid choosing the wrong textbook? It is this question that my study was intended to answer. I have used the proposed analysis system to examine the 16 OC-A textbooks published in 1995 and have obtained the following positive results regarding the ability of the system to analyze and compare various texts (see Appendix for details of the analysis):

1. The proposed analysis system enables teachers to categorize OC-A textbooks according to the criteria that they consider important for their classrooms.
2. The analysis system allows two or more scales to be combined. For example, the data on the analysis displayed in the Appendix is sorted primarily according to the percentage of creative and interactive activities and secondarily according to topic consistency versus topic inconsistency.
3. By displaying the textbook analysis data in a table, as shown in the Appendix, it is possible to compare textbooks quickly and easily.
4. By using the two-axis scale for "activity types," teachers can determine the response that a given textbook requires from both teachers and students.

Of course it is time consuming to analyze textbooks in this way, but these results can be shared with other teachers. Such analysis does not tell teachers which textbook to choose, but gives them the data necessary to make their own decision.

Acknowledgements

A version of this paper has appeared in The Bulletin of the Faculty of Education, Shizuoka University Educational Research Series *31, 1999 (published in March 2000).*

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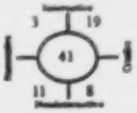
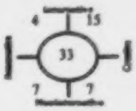
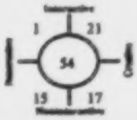
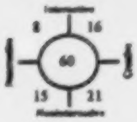
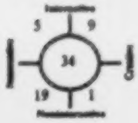
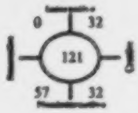
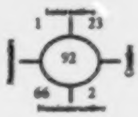
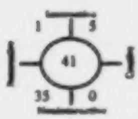
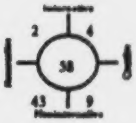
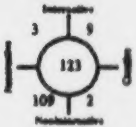
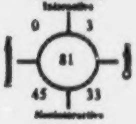
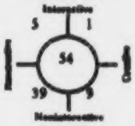
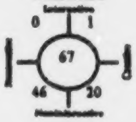
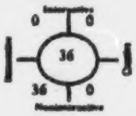
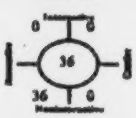
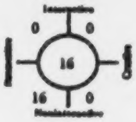
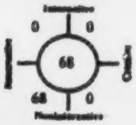
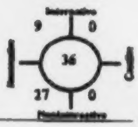
(Received May 27, 1998; revised June 6, 1999)

Appendix: Analysis of Textbook Treatment of Aural/Oral Communication

Textbook	+/- Topic Consistency	Main Syllabus	Sub Syllabus	Percentage of Drills per Lesson (Type)	Activities for Expressing Self	Activity Types
Speak to the World	+	Topical	Functional	0%	10	
Select	+	Topical	Functional	0%	17	
Echo English Course	+	Topical	Functional	0%	19	
Hello, There!	+	Topical	Functional	0%	19	
Interact	+	Topical	Functional	13% (Substitution)	17	
Mainstream	-	Functional	Structural	14% (Reproduction)	16	 0 32 121 57 32
The New Age Dialog	+	Topical	Situational	0%	8	
New Start	-	Functional	Structural	50% (Substitution)	5	

Lighthouse Conversation	-	Functional	Structural	50% (Substitution)	0	 Interactive 2 4 58 43 9 Noninteractive
Birdland	-	Structural	Functional	100% (Conversation and Rejoinder)	0	 Interactive 3 9 123 109 2 Noninteractive
Active English Communication	+	Topical	Structural	60% (Substitution)	0	 Interactive 0 3 81 45 33 Noninteractive
English Street	+	Topical	Functional	33% (Substitution and Oral Translation)	0	 Interactive 5 1 54 39 9 Noninteractive
Evergreen	-	Functional	Structural	50% (Substitution and Reproduction)	0	 Interactive 0 1 67 46 20 Noninteractive
Expressways Part 1 (18 Units)	-	Functional	Structural	50% (Substitution and Rejoinder)	0	 Interactive 0 0 36 36 0 Noninteractive
Expressways Part 2 (18 Units)	+	Situational	Functional	100% (Reproduction and Substitution)	0	 Interactive 0 0 36 36 0 Noninteractive
Sailing Part 1 (8 Units)	-	Functional	None	100% (Repetition)	0	 Interactive 0 0 16 16 0 Noninteractive
Sailing Part 2 (17 Units)	+	Topical	Functional	29% (Substitution and Oral Translation)	0	 Interactive 0 0 68 68 0 Noninteractive
Laurel	-	Functional	Topical	100% (Substitution and Oral Translation)	2	 Interactive 9 0 36 27 0 Noninteractive

Teachers of English in Japan: Professional Development and Training at a Crossroads

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Aimed at assessing teacher response to the Monbusho's English curriculum document, the *New Revised Course of Study: Emphasis on Oral Communication,* this paper reports the findings of an exploratory questionnaire administered to 60 junior and senior high school English teachers around Japan for the purposes of assessing the amount of university-level teacher training given the teachers, their current teaching aims and resources, and their participation in inservice education. The results suggest that if English teaching is to fulfil its aims in Japan, the restructuring of teacher education and training must become a priority.

特にオーラルコミュニケーションに重点を置いた文部省新指導要領に対して、英語教育を実際に担当している教員が、どのような意見・考えを持っているのかを知ることは重要である。本研究では、日本各地の中学校または高等学校で英語を担当する教員60名を対象にアンケートを実施し、大学における英語科教育の内容、現在の英語教育目標と教材、教員研修への参加ついて調査を行った。このアンケートの結果によれば、日本において英語教育の目的を達成するためには、英語教員の養成・研修のあり方を再検討することが重要な課題といえる。

In 1989, in response to criticisms from a government commission saying that it was "outdated, uncreative, rigid and inhibiting" (Ministry of Education [Monbusho], 1985, p. 9), the English curriculum in Japanese high schools underwent extensive reform. The documentary outcome was the *New Revised Course of Study: Emphasis on Oral Communication* (Monbusho, 1989). The revision demanded a new language emphasis, and a resource utilization and classroom teaching style which were in diametric opposition to those in current use. It was difficult to see how teachers could make the adjustments necessary to deliver the new curriculum without extensive retraining. Problems were compounded by the fact that university-bound high school students would continue to sit for examinations based on the old formal structure-centered curriculum while being taught a new curriculum aiming for communicative competence.

JALT Journal, Vol. 22, No. 1, May, 2000

This paper presents the results of an exploratory General Survey Questionnaire (GSQ: see Appendix) administered to a convenience sample of 100 Japanese junior and senior high school teachers currently teaching in Japan, from which 60 valid responses were obtained. The questionnaire was part of a wider study investigating Japanese teachers of English taking part in a government-sponsored overseas training course, and those findings are reported elsewhere (Lamie, 1998). Evaluation of the results of the survey suggest that if the Ministry of Education's new curriculum is to be a success, English teachers must be given more training and inservice support.

Background of the Study

In 1988 the Monbusho stated that the teaching of English was failing and pointed to a number of contributing factors: a lack of exposure to spoken English, a lack of confidence in communicating in English, large class sizes, difficult teaching materials, and adherence to traditional teaching methods (Monbusho, 1988). To these could be added–although the Monbusho did not–an examination structure that values grammatical factual learning above spoken language knowledge and confidence.

The Monbusho (1988) also announced its own view of the basic principles that should lie at the heart of the teaching of English: (1) to listen to as much authentic English as possible; (2) to read as much living English as possible; (3) to have as many chances to use English as possible; (4) to extend cultural background knowledge; and (5) to cultivate a sense of international citizenship. The stated objective for the *New Revised Course of Study* (NRCOS), which was the culmination of the debate on English education in Japan, was:

> To develop students' basic abilities to understand a foreign language and express themselves in it, to foster a positive attitude toward communicating in it, and to deepen interest in language and culture, cultivating basic international understanding. (Monbusho, 1989, p. 96)

What was particularly important about NRCOS was that English teaching was seen to have two main thrusts: the acquisition of the language itself, and the development of knowledge about the cultures that use the language. The key terms in the language acquisition part of the proposition were *authentic*, *living*, and *use*; and these aspects of English had never been afforded such importance before. It is within this context that the teachers replying to the GSQ are placed.

Research Focus

This limited exploratory research was aimed at determining the degree of teaching training junior and senior high school teachers had received at university, specifically the amount of training in various teaching methodologies and testing protocols. In particular it addressed the consideration that inservice courses are necessary to change teachers' attitudes and beliefs and give them the necessary tools to enable them to alter their classroom practice and deliver the revised curriculum effectively.

The questionnaire also asked about the various teaching resources, such as language laboratories, tape recorders, and so forth, which were available and how often the teachers used these resources each week to support instruction. An additional section investigated participation in teacher inservice education and training programs. The final section consisted of open-ended questions requesting the teachers to reflect on their teaching, indicating how implementation of the New Revised Course of Study has influenced their teaching, and solicited additional comments on teaching English and the need for curriculum revisions.

Method

Considerations about the Use and Design of Questionnaires

Questionnaires are only one of several ways researchers can gather information, test hypotheses, and obtain answers to research questions. However, a number of problems are inherent in the use of the questionnaire as a research technique. Although a well-formulated planning structure and recording procedure will go some way to solving some of these problems, they serve to reinforce the importance of a triangular or multiple strategy approach:

> The questionnaire may be considered as a formalised and stylised interview, or interview by proxy. The form is the same as it would be in a face-to-face interview, but in order to remove the interviewer the subject is presented with what, essentially, is a structured transcript with the responses missing (Walker, 1985, p. 91).

Viewed in this way, questionnaires can be designed to gather information and, in conjunction with other techniques, can test and suggest new hypotheses. As Drever and Munn (1990) state, a questionnaire can provide you with, "descriptive information, and tentative explanations associated with testing of an hypothesis" (p. 1).

Comprehensibility

Subjects responding to the questionnaire must be able to understand the questions posed and their relevance. The designer should also be aware, particularly when dealing with respondents who are working in a second language (L2), that there is a tendency for only those who are competent in the L2 to reply (Drever & Munn, 1990). Therefore the questionnaire designer should ensure that all questions, particularly in postal questionnaires, are easy to understand and answer at all levels of L2 proficiency.

Sample Size

Although the sample size is dependent to a large extent on the purpose of the study, for the self-completion questionnaire, a minimum of 30 respondents as a selection base is suggested (Cohen & Manion, 1994). Since validity is related to the size of the sample (see Figure 1 below), researchers suggest that at least 100 respondents is desirable.

Figure 1: Relationship between Sample Size and Validity

Sample Size	95% confidence range
100	+/- 10%
250	+/- 6%
1000	+/- 3%

From Munn & Drever, 1991, p. 15

Item Design

The general rule for question design is that each item (ideally a maximum of 20) must measure a specific aspect of the objective or hypothesis. The questions can be closed or open, although quantification and analysis can be more easily carried out with closed questions. Psychologically threatening questions should be avoided, as should items heavily laden with technical terms. General questions should be placed first, followed by those that are more specific, and biased, leading questions should be avoided to maintain validity and reliability (Cohen & Manion, 1994).

Steps in Questionnaire Construction

If possible the questionnaire should be piloted or pretested using a similar population which need not be large, but can be a "well-defined professional group" (Borg & Gall, 1983, p. 426). Space should be provided for comments and amendments made in line with the feedback given. A procedure, therefore, could be:

1) define the objectives
2) select a sample
3) construct the questionnaire
4) pretest
5) amend if necessary
6) administer
7) analyze results

Thus, a well-structured questionnaire, with clearly defined aims and objectives, which has been piloted, amended, and administered to a carefully chosen or randomized sample should provide both qualitative and quantitative data and be simpler to analyze than an interview format.

Design of the General Survey Questionnaire

Following the considerations raised above, a general survey English-language questionnaire was constructed in four sections (see Appendix). The first part of the first section consisted of seven questions regarding the training the respondents received during their university education. In particular, the respondents were asked to indicate which teaching methodologies they had received instruction on during their teacher training (e.g., grammar-translation, communicative language teaching, team teaching). The second part, consisting of three questions, asked how long the respondent had been teaching and elicited information about the level taught (junior or senior high school) and class size. The second section examined the teachers' instructional aims and objectives using a Likert scale response to statements and also investigated the type of teaching resources available at their schools such as a language laboratory, an Assistant Language Teacher (ALT; this is a native-speaker participant in a special program which sends assistant teachers to different schools to team-teach classes with the Japanese teachers of English), videotape recorders, and computers. Teachers were also asked to indicate how often these resources were used during the school week. The third section listed types of inservice education, such as watching demonstration classes, attending conferences, and taking seminars, and asked the teachers whether they had ever participated in these activities. The final section was open-ended and requested comments on changes in teaching techniques over time, in particular, whether the New Revised Course of Study had produced changes in their method of English instruction.

Administration of the Questionnaire

The questionnaire was sent by mail to a convenience sample of 100 junior and senior high school English teachers throughout Japan. This form of snowball sampling (Drever, 1995, p. 36) takes place when "key informants" (p. 36), in this case, teachers at junior and senior high school and university lecturers, are requested to distribute materials, for example questionnaires, chosen for the data-gathering process. In this instance links between the University of Birmingham and schools and colleges in Japan were utilized. Teachers and lecturers who had participated in the University's teacher training program were considered to be key informants. They were sent copies of the questionnaire and asked to distribute them to a junior or senior high school in their proximity. From the 100 questionnaires distributed by mail, 62 were returned, and two were invalid since they were completed by ALTs, leaving 60 suitable for evaluation.

The questionnaire was exploratory and was designed to collect very basic information regarding the general professional and educational situation for Japanese teachers of English, rather than to measure their attitudes or motivation. Consequently, the exclusively factual questions of an information-gathering nature resulted in an inability to provide reliability estimates through the use of statistics such as Cronbach's alpha.

Results and Discussion

As shown in Table 1, most of the senior high school teachers surveyed had class sizes of 40 students or over, whereas junior high school teachers had classes of from 30 to 40 students. Nearly 40% of the high school teachers had been teaching ten years or less, so were fairly recent university graduates, and 44% of the junior high school teachers had been teaching 15 years or less.

Initial Teacher Training

As mentioned, the first part of the questionnaire focused on the educational background of the participants. All of the teachers surveyed here were university graduates and although many of them may have taken English, only 59% were actually English majors. In addition the vast majority had only two weeks of teaching practice (70%) and to fulfil this requirement the students often went back to the school at which they had been educated (Table 2).

Two weeks of teaching practice is a very short period during a two or four year course, and the nature of the practice does not give prospective teachers a great deal of opportunity to test out a range of methods.

Table 1: Breakdown for School Type, Class Size and Years of Teaching ($n = 60$)

Class Size	Senior High School	%	Junior High School	%
Less than 30	1	2	1	6
30 – 35	1	2	6	38
36 – 39	1	2	5	31
40	19	44	4	25
More than 40	17	39	0	0
No response	5	11	0	0
Total	44	100	16	100
Years of Teaching Experience				
0 - 10	17	39	3	19
11 – 15	10	23	7	44
16 – 20	12	27	4	25
20+	3	7	2	12
No response	2	4	0	0
Total	44	100	16	100

Table 2: Length of Teaching Practice at University ($n = 60$)

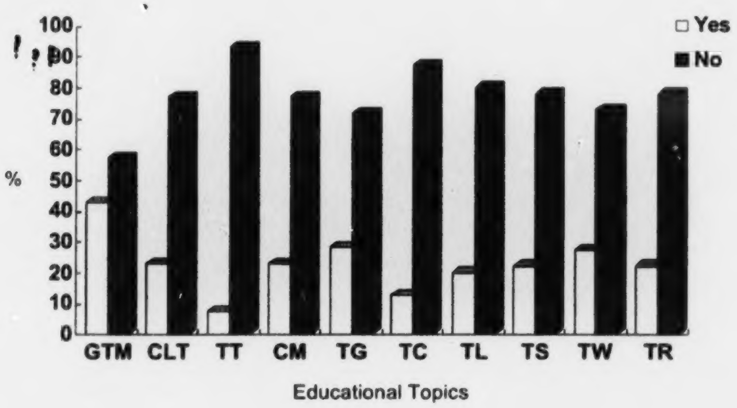
Length of Teaching Practice	%
2 weeks	70
3 weeks	8
4 weeks	8
5 weeks	5
6 weeks	5
7 weeks	2
9 weeks	2

In the majority of cases a mentor teacher helps the trainee with a teaching plan for each lesson which, in reality, means that the senior teacher effectively writes it. Thus, the teacher trainees are usually not able to develop their own teaching plans. One result of such limited practice experience is that teachers have a tendency to perpetuate the methodological status quo, as the following responses to the open-ended questions indicated:

> When I began teaching I almost taught English focusing on the grammar translation. (Senior High School [HS] respondent #5)
>
> When I started teaching, I just imitated the class I had given. (HS#7)

With the variety of majors and limited practical experience, the content of the university education courses taken has an even greater importance. However, the provision of teacher training courses in the data here is not in line with the revised curriculum. As shown in Figure 2, a significant number of teacher trainees received no training in communicative language teaching (CLT) methodology (77%), classroom management (77%), or team teaching (93%). The course with the most notable number of participants was Grammar Translation Methodology (GTM: 43%). However, given the new curriculum revision, with its emphasis on *authentic* English, *living* English, and the *use* of English, extensive training in a methodology which depends on grammatical structures listed in order of complexity and delivered systematically using primarily the native language would appear to be unsuitable.

Figure 2: Topics in Education Methodology Studied at University



GTM: Grammar Translation Method; CLT: Communicative Language Teaching; TT: Team Teaching; CM: Classroom Management; TG: Teaching Grammar; TC: Teaching Communication; TL: Teaching Listening; TS: Teaching Speaking; TW: Teaching Writing; TR: Teaching Reading

Teaching Aims and Objectives

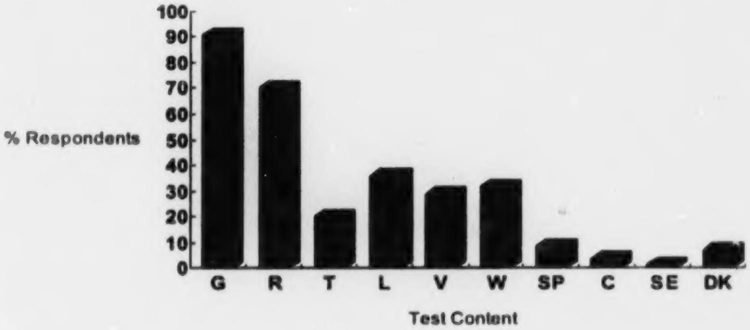
The first part of the second section of the questionnaire addressed teaching aims and objectives. The respondents were given five statements (see Appendix) and were asked to rank them in order from 1 (the most important) to 6 (the least important). Their responses are presented in Table 3.

Table 3: English Teaching Objectives (n = 60)

Teaching Objectives Junior High School %* Senior High School %*	1 Most Important	2	3	4	5 Least Important	6	No reply
Communicate orally	25	12.5	6.25	12.5	12.5	6.25	25
	11	16	9	9	14	16	25
Read and Write	12.5	12.5	25	6.25	18.75	0	25
	7	22	30	16	0	0	25
Pass examinations	12.5	12.5	6.25	12.5	6.25	25	25
	39	2	9	9	7	9	25
Grammar Structures	0	6.25	6.25	25	12.5	25	25
	2	20.5	5	20.5	11	16	25
Culture	12.5	25	6.25	18.75	12.5	0	25
	7	5	14	16	17	16	25
Listening and Speaking	18.75	12.5	25	0	6.25	12.5	25
	9	9	9	5	25	17	25

* Due to rounding, total percentages may not add up to 100%

Figure 3: Content of High School English Examinations



G: Grammar, R: Reading, T: Translation, L: Listening, V: Vocabulary, W: Writing, SP: Speaking, C: Composition, SE: Semantics, DK: Don't Know

Not unexpectedly, given the nature of the senior high school curriculum and the restrictions placed on it by the university entrance examination system, a full 39% of senior high school teachers selected *pass examinations* as their key teaching objective, compared with only 12.5%

of the junior high school teachers. Examinations play an important part in education in Japan. The majority of schools have at least two tests each term, and three terms in one year. It is, however, the nature of these tests which is important. As can be seen from Figure 3, the focus on grammar is central, particularly in senior high school. Even with a sample size of 60 and a 95% confidence range (Drever & Munn, 1990, p. 15) which assumes a variation of +/- 10%, the results (Senior High School: 91%; Junior High School: 75%) are significant.

Comments offered by the respondents at the end of the questionnaire reinforce general perceptions of the nature and influence of the examination system (a form of perceived behavioral control, according to Ajzen, 1988) on classroom teaching, particularly at senior high school. Eleven senior high teachers (25%) highlighted the negative effect that the university entrance examination had on their teaching:

> Most teachers in my schools have been teaching English in the traditional way, and in term-examinations we have to make questions cooperatively . . . this way of teaching is suitable for entrance examinations to universities. (HS#10)

> I wanted to teach the students English for the Communication, but I found it difficult to do so for the two major problems. One is my English ability. The other is that the students' aim to study English is to pass the entrance exams! (HS#37)

For some teachers it was not their lack of enthusiasm for change that has hindered their development:

> I wanna emphasize speaking and listening ability of English in the class, but the most important thing in high school education is to help the students pass the exams of universities. So we are obliged to emphasize grammatical and reading skills in class. I'm really sorry about it. (HS#41)

The importance of reading and writing and grammatical structures were also reiterated in the comments section:

> My aim in teaching has been to let students acquire grammatical structures and vocabulary. (HS#13)

> Although it's been a reading-centered teaching, much work of listening and speaking using a Monbusho textbook has been carried out. (HS#11)

Other teachers found it difficult to ascribe the changes in their beliefs to any one circumstance:

> When I first began teaching, students and teachers were interested in reading and writing English in order to pass the exam for college. Now I mainly teach speaking and listening to English. I can't find one big reason, but a lot of them are mixed and everybody feels oral English is a must now. (HS#25)

> My objective and methodology of teaching English has been shifted from teaching grammar and translation skills to fostering communicative ability. This is because I myself learned a lot about a foreign language teaching/learning. (HS#15)

However, other teachers pointed out that differences could be attributed to changes and developments in training, topics which will be dealt with below.

> I get information through English teachers' magazine and computer network. (HS#9)

> I have come to focus on Listening and Speaking more than ever, since OCA (Oral Communication A), OCB, OCC were introduced. (HS#4)

Interestingly, however, these same specific resources, the Monbusho-approved textbooks, have also been targeted as the reason for failure in altering methods and complying with the revised curriculum:

> The main stumbling block is the textbooks I have to use and the class size. (HS#29)

> The biggest change is I do not teach textbooks, but I use them as a sort of supporting material. (HS#28)

Aims and objectives are important in teaching. They enable teachers to focus their classroom behavior, set benchmarks for evaluation, take into account the wants and needs of their students, and formulate ways to match these wants and needs with curricular and professional responsibilities. However, aims and objectives are, as Cohen and Manion (1994, p. 27) state, only "expressions of educational intention and purpose." Fulfilling general aims and completing more specific objectives require coordinating these intentions with practice, and practice is influenced by resources.

Utilization of Teaching Resources

Assistant Language Teachers

Among the various English language teaching resources available in Japanese secondary schools today, perhaps the most obvious is the presence in the classroom of a native English speaker language teaching assistant, the ALT, working with the Japanese teacher during the English lesson. The presence of the ALTs is due to the creation of the Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Program. The goals of the JET Program have been stated clearly by the Monbusho:

> The Japan Exchange and Teaching (JET) Program seeks to improve foreign language education in Japan, and to enhance internationalisation by helping promote international exchange at the local level and mutual understanding between Japan and other countries.

> JET Program participants are divided into two groups according to their job duties: Assistant Language Teachers (ALTs) and Co-ordinators for International Relations (CIRs). The former are expected to assist in the improvement of foreign language education at school and the latter to help promote international exchange at the local level. (Monbusho 1994, p. 6)

The JET program recruits and supplies these native English speaking assistant teachers to team-teach with the Japanese English teachers. However, t[illegible] program has not been without its critics, both political and profes[illegible]al. Although Monbusho emphasized the intention of the program to promote internationalization, it also alluded to its potential for altering and shaping classroom practice. Despite some initial protestation (see Lamie & Moore, 1997, p. 164) Japanese teachers of English have begun to look upon the JET Program provision as being beneficial to their newly focused *communicative* situation. Many of the high school teachers emphasized the positive influence of a native speaker of English in the classroom:

> From when ALTs were introduced to English class I thought I had to teach our students live English, trying to find a way to improve our students' competence in communication. (Junior High School [JHS] #3)
>
> Team teaching with ALT gave me a good effect to try to teach English communicatively. (HS#31)
>
> With the introduction of the ALT I began to think about communication. (HS#32)
>
> Now I do team teaching with ALT as many times as possible. I believe that will become the motive of students for speaking English. (HS#36)

The ALTs constitute the largest category of additional resources in the classroom and the most widely used. However, ALTs frequently refer to themselves as "human tape-recorders" (Lamie & Moore, 1997, p. 179) and this may be indicative of the way in which they are employed. How they are used in combination with prescribed textbooks and other materials may not initially be apparent and, particularly with students studying for entrance examinations, the use of ALTs may not seem necessary.

Other Resources

As can be seen from Table 4, resources may be available but are not always used. What is especially surprising is the presence of media/video and computer-based materials yet their lack of use. In addition to being excellent resources for the development of language, such media tools can give the students specific cultural knowledge and opportunities to listen to speakers of English in addition to the ALT. However, as the teachers surveyed here confirm, there is a need for training in the use of multimedia.

Table 4: Availability and Use of Language Teaching Resources ($n = 60$)

	Senior High Schools (%)				Junior High Schools (%)		
Availability and Use	NO	YES	USE	Don't Know	NO	YES	USE
Language Lab	34	62	29	4	81	19	19
ALT	9	87	64	4	19	81	75
Video	27	69	32	4	19	81	50
Computers	41	55	4	4	62	38	12

As might be expected, the most used and influential resource in Japan is the Monbusho-approved textbook. Textbooks to be used in schools must either be authorized by the Ministry or compiled by the Monbusho itself. Following the revision of the Course of Study, the textbooks were also reviewed and the result for senior high school in particular was a flooding of the market of texts claiming to have communicative competence as their main objective. However, the need for students to pass entrance examinations remained, the examinations had not changed, and therefore a strict grade quota system still existed. Thus, as Fullan (1991) points out:

> An approved textbook may easily become the curriculum in the classroom, yet fail to incorporate significant features of the policy or goals that it is supposed to address. Reliance on the textbook may distract attention from behaviours and educational beliefs crucial to the achievement of desired outcomes. (p. 70)

The limited findings reported here would appear to support this statement. All junior high school respondents (see Table 5) and a high percentage (93%) of the senior high school teachers as well, made extensive use of the textbook. The emphasis on the written word is further indicated by the lack of time spent in the classroom using audio materials: 18% of the senior high school teachers and 18.75% of the junior high school teachers stated that they *never* used additional taped materials with the textbook; and the same percentage of junior high, and 25% of senior high school teachers also made no use of authentic listening materials (Table 5). Similarly, 22% of senior high school teachers stated that they *never* used authentic materials in the classroom. In addition, 79% of senior high school teachers and 68.75% of junior high teachers noted their prolific use of the blackboard and their lack of use of supporting texts and materials.

Table 5: Use of Classroom Resource Materials (*n* = 60)

Material	Always Use		Often Use		S/times Use		Rarely Use		Never Use	
	S %	J %	S %	J %	S %	J %	S %	J %	S %	J %
Textbook	77	62.5	16	37.5	5	0	2	0	0	0
Tape-text	14	31.25	18	12.5	28	25	22	12.5	18	18.75
Tape-auth	2	6.25	16	12.5	36	31.25	21	31.25	25	18.75
Other texts	9	0	18	6.25	43	31.25	16	43.75	14	18.75
Blackboard	79	68.75	14	18.75	7	12.5	0	0	0	0
Authentic	0	6.25	18	25	28	18.75	32	43.75	22	6.25

S: Senior High School; J: Junior High School

One respondent draws attention to this situation and offers a tentative reason for it being the case:

> My basic teaching method is what is usually called the Grammar Translation Method. One of the reasons for this seems to be that I have never had a chance to learn all these new methodologies during my teaching career. (HS#12)

The new English curriculum, focusing on *authentic, living,* and *use,* and designed to encourage internationalization and foster communication would appear to receive little support from the materials available and their patterns of use. One teacher suggests a solution to the problem:

> Teachers should have more time for training and refreshment. (JHS#1)

Inservice Education and Training

In-Service Education and Training (INSET) is a program sponsored by the Monbusho for people recommended by each Prefectural Board of Education. It is also available to those who are expected to become leaders or teacher consultants in each local district. Participation is not compulsory, although teachers may feel obliged to take part in an INSET scheme if asked by their school principal. At the school level, demonstration classes take place, and schools with sufficiently motivated staff may also run their own seminars or have discussion groups. Following publication of the *New Revised Course of Study* the Monbusho distributed the government guidelines and invited experienced teachers to attend information-disseminating conferences. However, responses from the teachers participating in this limited study (see Table 6) indicate that these national conferences have not been well attended.

Those who had been fortunate enough to attend training courses made positive comments:

> Two British Council summer seminars in Tokyo have changed me a lot. These taught me the importance of having a theory and how to realize the objectives that I have. So now I don't hesitate to try new things to develop my teaching. (HS#21)
>
> I was given a chance to study in Britain and now feel I have a chance to change my teaching. Now I try to speak more English to the students and to improve their ability. I think studying in Britain changed me a lot. (HS#40)

Table 6: Participation in Inservice Training Activities (*n* = 60)

	Senior High School (%)		Junior High School (%)	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Demonstration class	91	9	100	0
Prefectural conference	75	25	81.25	18.75
National Conference	50	50	75	25
Overseas Conference	4	96	12.5	87.5
School Seminar	2	98	31.25	68.75

As mentioned, there are a variety of opportunities open to teachers in Japan to take part in inservice activities. However the presence of such courses does not mean that all teachers who wish to attend will be able to do so. The teachers surveyed stated that they are eager to take part in INSET, but noted that the system in Japan is in need of review:

> I think one of the main shortcomings of Japanese teachers' training system is that teachers rarely have chance to get a training course. (HS#12)
>
> I have been trying to teach communicative English. But I didn't have any knowledge of methods, still now I don't know. (HS#31)

Conclusion

The English language teaching situation in Japan is, and has been for some time, at a crossroads. There has been a dramatic change in the principles underlying the teaching of English which has resulted in a new course of study. However, in responses to this exploratory survey, 60 high school and junior high school teachers have highlighted four key areas in which development must take place. These are: (a) initial teacher training; (b) provision and utilization of teaching resources; (c) university entrance examinations; and (d) inservice training provi-

It appears that teacher training in the university sector has not changed in line with the recent curriculum revision, and newly qualified teachers continue to graduate with little or no grounding in the communicative methodology (Shimahara, 1998) which would enable them to deliver the modified curriculum. Teachers indicated that although they realize the importance of developing the students' communicative competence, the restrictions placed on them, particularly with regards to the examination structure, are too great to alter their classroom practice. In addition, the resources available, both prescribed and voluntary, did not sufficiently underpin the new curriculum. Therefore old relied-upon methods still tend to be prevalent.

Respondents considered the area of inservice education and training to be the most positive and useful for fostering change in both awareness and practice. They were also adamant that the issue of continuing professional development should be addressed by the government and reviewed to make it compatible with the recent curriculum revision.

Without a change in the focus and procedure of initial teacher training new teachers will not be equipped sufficiently to deliver the NRCOS effectively. Furthermore, without a revision in material production and some form of inservice training, experienced teachers will not be able to make the necessary changes in their attitudes, beliefs and classroom practice to enable them to fulfill their professional requirements and deliver the *New Revised Course of Study*.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank the three anonymous JALT Journal *reviewers for their valuable comments on an earlier draft of this paper.*

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(Received December 24 1998; revised August 2, 1999)

Appendix

Section One: Background

Part One

1) Did you go to University (or college)? YES/NO*

If NO, please move to Section Two.

* Please circle appropriate answer

2) Which University/College did you attend? ______________________
3) What was your major? ______________________________________
4) How many years was your course? ___________________________
5) How many weeks teaching practice did you do? _______________
6) Did you have any lectures/seminars in the following areas?

- Grammar Translation Methodology	YES/NO
- Communicative Language Teaching	YES/NO
- Team teaching	YES/NO
- Classroom Management	YES/NO
- Testing Grammar	YES/NO
- Testing Communicative Ability	YES/NO
- Testing Listening	YES/NO
- Testing Speaking	YES/NO
- Testing Reading	YES/NO
- Testing Writing	YES/NO

7) Were there any other educational topics that you covered at University?

____

Part Two

8) How many years have you been teaching English? ________________

9) Where do you teach? Junior high school / Senior high school

10) What is your average class size? ______________________________

Section Two:

Part 1: Aims and Objectives

What are the *real* objectives for Japanese teachers of English in their teaching of English? Put the objectives into order (**1** for the objective you think is most relevant, **2** for the next and so on):

- to enable the students to communicate orally in the language
- to enable the students to read and write the language
- to enable students to pass examinations
- to enable students to understand the grammatical structures of English
- to enable students to become more familiar with the culture that supports the language
- to develop students' listening and speaking abilities

Part 2: Teaching Resources

A. Do you have any of the following in your school? If YES, please state whether you use them, and the approximate number of hours each week:

Language Laboratory (LL) YES/NO ________________________

Assistant Language Teacher (ALT) YES/NO ________________________

Video Tape Recorder YES/NO ________________________

Computers YES/NO ________________________

B. How often do you use the following in your English Classes (please tick the appropriate box):

	Always	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Monbusho Textbook					
Monbusho Workbook					
Flashcards					
Tape - with textbook					
Tape - authentic					
Other texts					
OHP					
Blackboard					
Authentic Materials					

Section Three: Inservice Education and Training

Have you ever experienced any of the following? If YES, please give a brief explanation:

a) Demonstration Classes: YES/NO ________________________

b) Prefectural Conferences: YES/NO ________________________

c) National Conferences: YES/NO ________________________

d) Overseas Conferences: YES/NO ________________________

e) School Seminar: YES/NO ________________________

f) Methodology Seminar: YES/NO ________________________

Section Four: Comments

How far has your teaching changed since you became a qualified teacher? Why?

____

____

____

____

____

____

How far has the New Revised Course of Study affected your teaching?

____

____

____

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____

Any other comments?

____

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____

Thank you very much for completing this questionnaire

An Investigation of Five Japanese English Teachers' Reflections on Their U.S. MA TESOL Practicum Experience

Sandra McKay
San Francisco State University

This study examines the practicum experience of five Japanese English teachers pursuing a master's degree in TESOL at a U.S. university. Drawing on data gathered from individual and group interviews, mentor teacher and author field notes, student teaching logs and final reports, the author examines five Japanese graduate students' reflections on their practicum experience. The data suggests that whereas the students clearly faced some common challenges, their personalities and English learning and teaching backgrounds as well as their specific teaching context influenced their particular teaching concerns. Although much of the data highlights the special problems that nonnative English speakers face in teaching in an ESL context, the paper notes the benefits such an experience can afford and suggests ways of modifying the TESOL practicum experience so that it is more beneficial to teacher trainees.

本論文では、アメリカの大学院英語教育学修士コースに在籍する日本人英語教員５名の英語教育実習を考察した研究を報告する。個別及びグループ・インタビュー、指導教員及び筆者のフィールド・ノート、大学院生の授業ノート及び最終レポートからさまざまなデータを収集し、自己の英語教育実習について、５名の大学院生がどのような考えをもっているのかを考察した。これらのデータから、５名の院生は全員が共通の問題に直面していたが、それぞれが抱えていた教育上の関心事け、それぞれの人柄、英語教育歴、学習歴、授業環境に影響され異なっていることが明らかになった。得られたデータの多くは、英語を母語としない英語担当教員が直面する問題点を示したのだが、同時に本研究は、このような実習がもたらす意味を確認し、教員養成者にとって教育実習がより有益なものになるよう、教育実習のあり方を検討する方法を示した。

Many ESOL educators assume that there are considerable benefits in prospective Japanese English teachers obtaining an advanced degree in an English-speaking environment. They maintain that because students have to use English consistently in their graduate program and daily life, they have many opportunities to increase their communicative competence in English. In addition, some contend that

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studying abroad introduces students to the latest and so-called most progressive methods being developed in English-speaking countries. Yet these students face particular challenges in terms of completing their degree and ultimately in entering or re-entering the English teaching profession in Japan. Cultural differences in classroom expectations can exist between Japan and the host country; overseas professors may not be familiar with the English teaching context of Japan and hence not examine the appropriateness of particular teaching approaches and strategies for the Japanese classroom; finally, much of the research and many of the teaching materials introduced in the graduate program may be generated in and for an English as a Second Language (ESL) situation and not be appropriate for the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) setting in Japan.

Although recent attention has been given to examining the nonnative English speaker as English teacher (Liu, 1999; Medgyes, 1992, 1994), little research has been done regarding the preparation of these teachers, specifically in an English-speaking environment. The purpose of this paper is to contribute to an understanding of the teacher preparation of nonnative English speakers by examining the teaching reflections of five Japanese teacher trainees regarding their teaching practicum. As a forum for combining theory and practice, the teaching practicum provides an ideal context in which to examine the special challenges and opportunities that exist for Japanese English teachers studying abroad. Drawing on data gathered over a six-month period, I examine the reflections of these teachers and argue that whereas all five students shared particular concerns arising from what they perceived as their lack of knowledge of English and of U.S. culture, various individual factors such as previous teaching experience, English language proficiency, and personality, as well as contextual factors such as the language proficiency of the students and the philosophy of the mentor teacher influenced how each teacher trainee assessed his/her teaching experience in an ESL context.

To begin, the paper considers the role of the practicum in MA TESOL programs.

The Practicum in MA TESOL Programs

The practicum is a common feature of MA TESOL programs. In fact, Palmer (1995) in his survey of graduate programs listed in the *Directory of Professional Preparation Programs in the United States, 1992-1994* (Kornblum, 1992) notes that two thirds of the programs responding to his survey required a practicum or internship course. Given their widespread implementation, it is surprising how little research exists on the practices or efficacy of practicums. The most thorough investigation of the practicum is Richards and Crookes (1988), who surveyed 120 programs in the United States having courses leading to some type of concentration or specialization in teaching English as a second/foreign language.

According to their survey, most practicum experiences occur at the end of the degree program, are compulsory, and involve approximately three units of credit. The curriculum in most of these courses involves indirect experiences (i.e., observations of experienced teachers, viewing of videotapes of sample lessons, or observations of peers) and direct experiences (i.e., teaching in actual classrooms, teaching peers, or teaching classes specifically designed for practice teaching). Of these possible practicum experiences, supervised classroom teaching in real classrooms is allotted more time than any other component. Based on their survey, Richards and Crookes conclude that whereas the importance of the practicum experience is widely recognized, a great variety of different approaches is being implemented in ESOL teacher preparation courses.[1] Furthermore, little information exists on the effectiveness of current practicum experiences.[2]

Reflective Teaching

Currently in many practicum experiences, teacher trainees are encouraged to monitor their teaching through personal reflections recorded in diaries or journals (see, e.g., Stoynoff, 1999; Valli, 1992). As Richards (1990) points out, "Reflection is acknowledged to be a key component of many models of teacher development. The skills of self-inquiry and critical thinking are seen as central for continued professional growth" (p. 119). The goal of such reflection is to promote a view of the teacher as researcher. Wallace (1996), for example, argues that teacher trainees should be involved in structured reflection so that "they can become their own researcher" (p.281). Stanley (1998), in her discussion of teacher reflection, sets forth a framework for teacher reflectivity. She contends that reflective teaching involves a series of phases that involves engaging with reflection, thinking reflectively, using reflection, sustaining reflection, and ultimately practicing reflection. The final phase, practicing reflection, requires teachers to actually apply the insights they have gained through reflection to their own teaching context.

The teacher education program with which I am involved has encouraged reflective teaching through the use of teaching logs. Teacher trainees are required to keep a teaching log throughout their semester of teaching. In the written instructions they receive at the beginning of the semester, they are told:

> The log that you are being asked to keep . . . is a means for you to reflect on your experiences and observations as you work as a student teacher in an ESL class this semester. . . . It is an opportunity for you to raise questions, to ponder why an activity seemed to work or not work, to wonder whether there might be some other way to accomplish a comparable goal, to reflect on impressions or surprises or feelings, to react to the students' needs, interest, or behavior, to see connections between what you have learned throughout your study in the MA program and your ESL classroom experiences, to note what impressed you, what you learned, what you found clever or noteworthy, to discuss your struggles and successes.

Teacher trainees are also encouraged to reflect on their teaching experience in a final report in which they consider how they have developed as teachers during the semester and how they hope to continue to grow. In addition, teacher trainees are involved in individual and group conferences in which they critically discuss their teaching experiences. The goal of the present investigation is to examine the teaching reflections of five Japanese teacher trainees, as expressed in their teaching logs, final report, and conferences, as a way of gaining insights into the particular concerns of nonnative speakers teaching in an ESL context.

The Target Practicum Context

The practicum experience for these five Japanese teacher trainees consisted of a three-unit ungraded course taken in their last semester of study for their MA TESOL degree. The teacher trainees had already completed prerequisite courses in pyscholinguistics, sociolinguistics, and language structure, as well as 12 graduate units of core courses focusing on methods and material development and 12 units of elective courses. Teacher trainees were encouraged to select their own practicum teaching context based on classroom observations they had been involved in throughout the program. The rationale for such an approach to practicum placement was that teacher trainees would be able to select a teaching context and a mentor teacher they believed would be most beneficial to their continued professional growth. In reality, many teacher trainees, like those considered in Richards and Crookes' (1988) investigation of the teaching practicum, selected their practicum context based on such factors as personal contact with and reputation of the mentor teacher, proximity of the school to their home, and recommendations of other teacher trainees in the program. Many of the five teacher trainees selected their practicum experience based on their work with the mentor teacher in earlier semesters or on the recommendations of other teacher trainees in the program, often other nonnative speakers.

Method

Data

During the fall semester of 1998 I supervised five Japanese teacher trainees enrolled in their teaching practicum for a MA TESOL degree. The teacher trainees taught in a variety of ESL teaching contexts ranging from a beginning level spoken English class offered at a local community college to an advanced grammar course given at a four-year university. All five teacher trainees volunteered to be part of a project that explored the concerns of nonnative speakers of English teaching in ESL contexts and agreed to write regular journal entries throughout the semester. They also agreed to participate in individual and group interviews in which they elaborated on issues raised in their journals. In addition, they completed an extensive English language learning and teaching background questionnaire at the beginning of the semester and wrote a final report on their teaching experience at the end of the semester. I observed their classes during the semester, noting possible teaching moments in which being a nonnative speaker of English was a central factor. Such instances were then discussed in post-lesson interviews.

Three of the mentor teachers (i.e., the teachers in whose classes the teacher trainees taught) gave me logs in which they recorded specific teaching moments that seemed influenced by the fact that the teacher trainees were nonnative speakers of English. Because the mentor teachers did this voluntarily and over and above their regular work with the teacher trainees, there was no consistency to the length or frequency of these logs. I examined all of the data in a recursive fashion, highlighting and coding particular themes by type of document (i.e., students' teaching logs, students' language and teaching background questionnaire, students' final report, the mentor teachers' logs, and my field notes) and by the individual teacher trainee involved. The Findings section below discusses the prevalent themes evident in the data analysis and provides the source for the data included.

The Participants

The five teacher trainees differed in their exposure to English both in Japan and the U.S. as well as in their previous English teaching experience. The following is a brief description of the teacher trainees.[3]

Hideki:

Like most Japanese, Hideki began learning English in junior high school. He continued studying English in college but, as he says in his background questionnaire, he "hated to study English." He first traveled to the U.S. when he was 20 years old for a one-month vacation, which motivated him to take much more of an interest in English. He subsequently spent several vacations in the U.S., and when he was 22 studied English for a year in the U.S. He had no teaching experience prior to coming to study in the U.S. For his practicum he chose to work in a survival English class at a vocational school with a class of six students, all Russian speakers with almost no previous knowledge of English.

Sachiko

Sachiko began studying English at a small private Catholic school when she was in elementary school. She attended a Catholic junior and senior high school and college where she received a good deal of instruction in English. She first traveled to an English-speaking country when she was 19 for a one-month homestay in Canada and then spent one month in New Zealand the following summer. In Japan she had a lot of teaching experience, working at a junior high school for five years. For her practicum, she worked at a community college in an adult evening integrated skills class for high beginning level students. The class had close to 30 students, many of them older students, mainly from Asian and Pacific Rim Countries.

Koji

Koji started studying English at the age of six at a private English conversation school that used drama to develop oral skills. When he was seven he went to Portland, Oregon with his family and stayed there for two and a half years because of his father's job. There he attended a public elementary school in the regular classroom with native speakers with an ESL class for one hour a day. In fourth grade he returned to Japan and again enrolled in the English conversation school. Other than the time in Portland, he did no traveling or living in an English-speaking country and had no prior teaching experience in Japan. For his practicum he taught at the same school as Sachiko but in a lower level proficiency class.

Sadayuki

Sadayuki first started studying English in junior high and continued to study English at the university, taking various kinds of English classes. He first traveled to an English-speaking country at the age of 21 for a two-week English course in Orlando, Florida. He had no prior teaching experience in Japan though he had recently passed the exam for his teaching credential and had a job waiting for him at a Japanese high school. His teaching practicum was in a credit-bearing reading course for nonnative speakers at a community college. The class had 25 college-age students, mainly from Asian and Pacific Rim countries.

Mariko

Mariko began studying English in junior high school and majored in English literature at the university. Her only exposure to an English-speaking environment was when she was 27 and took a summer course at San Diego State University. Like Sachiko she had five years teaching experience, teaching in a junior and senior high school. For her practicum, she worked in a credit-bearing grammar review class for nonnative speakers at a public university. The class had 22 college-age students, mainly from Asian and Pacific Rim countries.

Table 1 provides a summary of the English language learning and teaching experience of the graduate teacher trainees.

Table 1: Language and Teaching Background of Teacher Trainees

Name	Gender	Age	First Exposure to English	Time in U.S. at Start of MA	Years of English English Teaching
Hideki	M	30	Junior High	1 1/2 yrs	none
Sachiko	F	30	Elementary School	2 months	5 years, Jr. high
Koji	M	27	Elementary School	2 1/2 years	none
Sadayuki	M	21	Junior High	2 weeks	none
Mariko	F	35	Junior High	4 weeks	5 years, Jr. & Sr. high

Results

Common Concerns

Though the five teacher trainees differed greatly in their English learning and teaching experience and in their particular teaching contexts, they shared common concerns that were apparent in many of their teaching journals, individual conferences, and group interview. These centered around their lack of knowledge of English, particularly in their knowledge of U.S. culture, and their uncertainty as to what method or methods to use in both the U.S. and Japan. Whereas native English-speaking teacher trainees may also experience a lack of knowledge and an uncertainty as to methodology, these five teacher trainees' awareness that English was not their mother tongue, coupled with their own English learning experience in Japan, made these concerns very salient in their teaching logs. Clearly, more research is needed to determine to what extent the concerns raised by the teacher trainees are shared by native English-speaking teacher trainees and to what degree the fact of being nonnative English speakers, trained in educational contexts that promote teaching methodologies different from those emphasized in a U.S. context, can heighten teacher trainees' awareness of their lack of knowledge and their uncertainty as to appropriate methods.

Personal Knowledge

In his examination of nonnative English speakers, Medgyes (1992) contends that the main element that hampers nonnative English speakers' effectiveness as teachers is "a state of constant stress and insecurity caused by inadequate knowledge of the language they are paid to teach" (p. 348). This stress and insecurity was evident in the experience of the teacher trainees, whose confidence in English was challenged both by their students' perception of them and their own unfamiliarity with aspects of U.S. culture. In their teaching logs, several of the teacher trainees reflected on instances of when they doubted their own competency in English and feared they were giving students incorrect information. Mariko, for example, wrote in her log,[4]

> Some of the students asked me about grammar and I tried to answer. Whenever I did not have confidence about my answers, I always asked questions to my master teacher, because what I was afraid the most was to give them wrong information. (TL 3, page 4, 12-7-98)

The teacher trainees' personal lack of self-confidence was heightened when their students challenged the accuracy of their knowledge. Sadayuki, for example, recounted the following experience.

> During the group work while I was circulating the class, one student asked me if the word she wrote was correct or not. I told her that was OK. But she also asked my mentor teacher to make sure if what I suggested was right or not. The same student said a main idea of a paragraph comes at the beginning. In class, I told Ss that a main idea of a paragraph can come to the end of the paragraph sometime. After the class, I happened to eavesdrop that the student was asking my mentor teacher to make sure. (TL 2, page 4, 11-6-98)

In the group interview I tried to clarify with the teacher trainees whether or not they felt this challenge was due to the fact they were nonnative English speakers or to the fact they were teacher trainees.[5]

> Author: Do you think they do that because you are, you are beginning teachers or do you think they do that because they think, "Ummm, this person is teaching a second language, so, he may not know."
>
> Sadayuki: Yeah . . . I first assume that you know, because I I am a nonnative teach, English teacher, so you know, maybe somehow, I I assumed, somehow those students thinks me as, you know, the same learner, so you know, not so trustworthy as the teacher, real, you know, native speaking teacher. (GI, page 3, 11-19-98)

Unfortunately, the teacher trainees themselves seemed to share the common attitude that it was only native speakers of English who could be the "real" teachers of English.

The area in which the teachers seemed to experience the greatest sense of a lack of knowledge was in the area of cultural knowledge. Over and over again the five teacher trainees recounted experiences of when they lacked the necessary cultural background to teach in an ESL context. Hideki, for example, described how his lack of knowledge in getting a job in the U.S. influenced his effectiveness in teaching a survival English unit on finding employment:

> When I was asked by my master teacher to give a lesson which relates to job searching skill, I worried whether I teach it or not. Teaching job searching skill is different from teaching grammar rules. First of all, teaching job searching skill requires both knowledge and experience. Unfortunately, I am foreign student and I can't work in the U.S. Therefore, I don't have enough knowledge about how to get a job. Filling out application form and writing resume are totally different from Japanese way. I didn't know how to fill out application form and what need to write in resume. For example, in Japan, when we apply for jobs, we hardly use application form. We call, make an appointment and bring resume. This is general procedure of applying jobs in Japan. But in here, people walk in companies (stores) and ask application form. The students are serious about finding jobs, so I couldn't give different information or skip this kind of information. (TL 3, page 1-2, 12-4-98)

Not only did Hideki's lack of knowledge entail unfamiliarity with how to go about getting a job, but he also was uncertain as to specialized vocabulary involved in finding a job in the U.S. For example, he pointed out that many job advertisements contain abbreviations that he did not know.

> For example, I didn't know the meaning "401k" (I'm not sure, 401k?). "K" means kilo (thousand), so when an advertisement indicates

> information about money, sometimes "k" is used. But 401k doesn't mean about money. It means benefit. It is difficult for me to know all meanings of abbreviations. (TL 3, page 2, 12-4-98)

Sachiko described a similar experience of not knowing the meaning of a term in a U.S. context.

> The other day I had to teach new vocabulary. Some of them was a bus station, a day-care center, a clinic, a hospital, a police station, and an employment office. In order to teach new vocabulary without a translation, I thought I had to describe what people were doing in these places. Then, I realized. The places I had never been were impossible to describe. Even if I know those places in Japan, what people are doing could be different in this country. For example, I had never been to a day-care center, clinic, police station, and an employment office in this country. First of all, I did not understand the difference between a day-care center and a nursery school, a clinic and a hospital. Both of them are translated into the same word in Japanese. (TL 1, page 3, 10-1-98)

Sachiko's lack of knowledge about aspects of U.S. society was heightened by the fact that in some instances her students, far less proficient than she in English, had this knowledge because they had lived in the U.S. for a considerable length of time. It is interesting to note that both Hideki and Sachiko viewed the role of the teacher as the "knower," who is supposed to be able to supply a correct answer to their students' questions, even though in their methods courses they had been introduced to the concept of the teacher as facilitator who encourages students to assume the role of the knower in supplying needed information. It is possible that Hideki and Sachiko, though aware of alternative roles of teachers and learners, were operating under assumptions about the role of a teacher promoted in their classroom learning in Japan.[6]

On the other hand, as nonnative English speakers, the five teacher trainees did have particular personal knowledge that was valued in their ESL teaching context. For one thing, the teacher trainees' knowledge of Japanese culture made them more aware of cross cultural differences. Sachiko, for example, described an instance when students in her class were asked to talk about their jobs. However, she was concerned that students may not want to talk about their jobs, especially if they were not proud of their job in the U.S. She noted that in Japan asking people about their jobs is not considered polite, especially in a public context like a classroom. She believed this knowledge provided her with an advantage over many native English speakers.

> As a non-native speaker, I am glad that I can have a different perspective from native speakers. For example, I know that at least in Japan teacher

> should not require Ss to talk about their jobs in public. I know it is not an appropriate topic in Japan. Many native speakers who have not lived in the countries where they teach English as a foreign language do not realize it for a long time. That is why I was concerned with the topic from the beginning. (TL 2, page 2, 11-6-98)

Although Sachiko was aware of the possible negative feelings students may have regarding the topic of jobs, she was unsure as to whether or not this topic should then be used in an ESL context.

> However, in case of teaching in an ESL setting, I am not sure if the topic is totally acceptable or not in this country. Moreover, I do not know if I should adjust American ways or respect Ss' culture and should avoid these things as a teacher. (TL 2, page 2, 11-6-98)

Another area in which the teacher trainees generally felt they had an advantage over native speakers is one pointed out by Medgyes (1992), namely that nonnative speakers can serve as models of successful learners, sharing with their students their own English learning strategies. This topic was discussed in the group interview when I asked them about what advantages they felt they had as nonnative speakers of English.

> Sadayuki: Ummmm, maybe as a model of learner. Second language learner. Yeah, something like that . . . I can I can tell students my strategy to read, and to write, and that stuff.
>
> Author: Yeah. Do you do that?
>
> Sadayuki: I, today I just talked about little bit about you know how to read. How to, you know, approach to the reading. Something like, you know, "Okay, first just . . . just first try to get the main idea," something like those directions. And next you know if you come up with the unfamiliar word, and you think that word has the kind of key meaning and still you're not sure, just look up the dictionary or something like that. Those I . . . I use that kind of strategy throughout years and years so. (GI, page 5, 11-19-98)

Such examples show that although the teacher trainees' knowledge was consistently challenged in their ESL teaching experience, there were instances when the teacher trainees experienced the benefits of being a nonnative speaker.

Teacher-centered Versus Student-centered Classrooms

The issue of personal knowledge was not the only common factor to these five teacher trainees' ESL teaching experience. All of them struggled with the question of what method or methods to implement in their classrooms, both in the U.S. and once they returned to Japan. This struggle was heightened by the fact that, whereas they had experienced largely a teacher-centered classroom in their English classes in Japan, in the U.S. the advantages of a student-centered classroom was emphasized in many of their graduate methodology courses and implemented in their classrooms. Sadayuki pointed out that perhaps he was too concerned about implementing a student-centered classroom because of his own experience in Japan and the U.S.

> One thing I realized was that I might be too conscious about student-centered instruction (not teacher-centered) because of my educational background. Since I went through the teacher-centered instruction including deductive explanations when I was a junior high and high school student, and since I experienced a lot of student-centered activities in MATESOL program and gained a sort of bad images about teacher-centered classrooms, I may be more concerned about Ss involved and participating activities than native speakers of English. I came up with this idea because my mentor teacher does sometimes a teacher-centered talk, which is fun. But what I have done so far is more Ss-controlled group work activities. (TL 2, pages 4-5, 11-6-98)

Koji noted a similar experience when his own aversion to an emphasis on accuracy that he experienced in his English classes in Japan led him to believe that such an emphasis should be avoided. Yet he was unsure as to whether or not an emphasis on accuracy was appropriate in his beginning level ESL teaching context.

> I didn't like accuracy over fluency in Japanese English classes. Too much grammar instruction made me bored in English classes. When I saw my mentor teacher doing similar things (i.e., emphasizing to capitalize the first letter in a sentence and person's name again and again, to write a period at the end of a sentence, and so on), I almost automatically thought that the students must have been bored. I thought the teacher should have de-emphasized teaching details. I thought like this by transferring my experience and it was not easy to ignore my memory. But the need of the immigrated students in U.S. could be different from that of Japanese people in Japan. The adults who were looking for a job need accuracy (i.e., capitalizing the first letter in a sentence and person's name, writing a period at the end of a sentence, etc.) according to a job. (TL 2, page 5, 11-6-98)

Hence the teacher trainees, influenced by their own Japanese language learning experience and their graduate education, were constantly struggling with the question of what goals and methodology were best for which context. By and large, however, perhaps due to the emphasis on communicative language teaching in their graduate program, they were convinced that a more student-centered classroom should be implemented, both in the U.S. and Japanese context. They were, however, quite aware that implementing a student-centered classroom in a Japanese context may be difficult because many Japanese students and teachers expect a teacher-centered classroom that focuses largely on preparation for the university entrance exam. In the group interview, I raised the question of how they hoped to implement a student-centered classroom once they returned to Japan in light of the fact that many of their teaching colleagues and students may not support such an approach and that as young teachers they may not be in a position to implement such change.

> Author: I mean, do you think, I mean, you are gonna go back with this idea, "I've got to do group work, I've got to do communicative language teaching," and all of the sudden, there maybe, "Uh-uh, not here." Sachiko, you say yes, why?
>
> Sachiko: Yeah, we often talk about it, maybe when we go back to Japan, most of them, most of the teachers are older than us, and they, they are doing a very very traditional way of teaching, and then if we talk about CLT or new way of teaching English they will think, we are so naughty.
>
> Author: Uh-huh.
>
> Sachiko: Yeah.
>
> Author: And what do you think your response to that would be?
>
> Sachiko: We think we will be quiet for three years.
>
> All: (Laughter)
>
> Sadayuki: For first like 5, 5 years, 5 years?
>
> Sachiko: Yeah.
>
> Sadayuki: I will be quiet, I I personally I will be quiet.
>
> Sachiko: Me, too.
>
> Sadayuki: You know for, after five years, I may be get promoted to, you know, curriculum designer or something like, you know, the academic year, supervisor or something. You know, when I when I get into that position, okay, that's the time to for me to speak up, about all, you know, ideas here. That's just social context, you know, social constraints. (GI, page 8, 11-19-98)

The shared laughter of this moment highlighted the fact that the teacher trainees realized the conflicts and problems they might encounter when they returned to Japan with an educational experience that in many ways had been very different from what they previously experienced at home.

Individual Concerns

Although most of the teacher trainees shared the challenges described above, their teaching logs and reports made it clear that each of the teacher trainees seemed to have a central concern about his/her teaching. In several instances, this overriding concern of their teaching reflections would not likely be predicted from looking at their previous English learning and teaching experience, as is evident in the discussion that follows.

Mariko: "I always became nervous."

Mariko had had more teaching experience than any of the other focus teacher trainees. Not only had she taught for five years in Japanese public junior and senior high schools, she had taught part time for two years in a *juku* ("cram" school for exam preparation). In light of her teaching experience, one might have assumed she would have had the most confidence in teaching English. However, her lack of confidence in her English competency, coupled with the fact that her practicum class was composed of very advanced ESL students, served to undermine the value of her previous teaching experience. In assessing her own strengths and weaknesses in English she wrote:

> My greatest weakness is lack of confidence about my English competence. I have to use English when I teach English or communicate with students. I'm always afraid I would give them wrong information (answer). It is easy for me to explain grammatical rules in Japanese, but it is sometimes hard in English. I can explain if the sentence is grammatically correct or not, but I can not say if that is natural or not for native speakers. I'm also confused about some rules, such as articles, prepositions, countable uncountable nouns, because these are also my weakness in grammar. I try to check about these to my master teacher. I sometimes feel inferiority about my English ability. (BQ, page 4, 9-29-98)

She continued by describing the stress this situation caused her:

> It is really challenging for me to teach university level students in English. I'm always afraid that I make error when I teach. I feel stress about my English ability. (BQ, page 4, 9-29-98)

In response to this situation, Mariko recounted over and over again both in our post-teaching interviews and in her teaching logs how nervous she felt about teaching in the U.S.

In her first teaching log, she noted that her nervousness made her make more grammatical errors than she normally would have. This nervousness was in sharp contrast to her teaching experience in Japan.

> When I had taught in Japan, I rarely became nervous in the class. However, I always became nervous and felt some stress. At first a simple thing like calling roll made me feel uncomfortable because I could not pronounce the student's name correctly and took much longer time to remember the student's names. Sometimes I felt that it was

> hard to keep confidence as a teacher in the ESL class. I made a lot of grammatical errors and took longer time to answer a student's question. (TL1, page 3, 10-2-98)

Perhaps it was because of Mariko's lack of confidence that her mentor teacher felt that some students were reluctant to seek her help. In her log, her mentor teacher noted:

> In talking to the students as they come to see me, I get the sense some of them are a little reluctant to go to her for help. She would often volunteer to help them or I'd tell them to ask her and when I directly told them, they would go, but I have the feeling they were a little reluctant to ask her for help perhaps because she's a nonnative speaker and they weren't sure how much help they would get. (ML, page 1, 12-1-98)

Unfortunately, this nervousness and lack of confidence continued throughout the semester of teaching. Even in her final report Mariko noted her nervousness in teaching.

> Teaching in Japan was much easier. When I taught in Japan, I gave directions to the students in Japanese or simple English. I did not have problems. However, when I taught an ESL class in English, I was very nervous and had trouble giving directions. (FR, page 1, 12-11-98)

In contrast to Mariko's consistent reflection on her own inadequacies and nervousness, my post-lesson interview notes described a much different situation. In the first interview, I noted the following.

> Mariko tackled a difficult topic in her advanced grammar class—count and noncount nouns. I was impressed by her poise and self-confidence in the class. . . . In our post-lesson discussion we talked about the differences she saw in teaching in Japan and the U.S. She said she appreciated not having to deal with discipline problems in her present class since this was an issue in Japan. However, she pointed out that she worried about knowing the grammar thoroughly enough to answer her students' questions. (FN, page 1, 9-28-98)

Hence, although I saw few signs of Mariko's nervousness in class, it was clear from her written reflections and her discussions with me, that her nervousness was a primary factor in her ESL teaching experience. Her lack of confidence and nervousness may have been heightened by her placement in an advanced college level grammar class in which she, like Hideki and Sachiko, assumed that the teacher must be the knower and hence be able to answer all of the students' grammar questions right away.

Sachiko: "I just don't know."

Like Mariko, Sachiko had had a good deal of teaching experience before coming to study in the U.S. However, unlike Mariko, she completed her practicum in a beginning level evening adult ESL program.

Most of her students were older immigrants who were working full time and attending the evening class after work. Because many of her students had lived in the U.S. far longer than she had, she expressed a consistent lack of knowledge regarding life in the U.S. and the English needs of the students. In her first teaching log she recounted how she called a friend who was a native English speaker to find out the meaning of several terms that were in the lesson she was supposed to teach.

> I called my friend who was a native speaker and asked those questions above. He told me the difference between the day-care center and nursery school, the difference between the clinic and hospital, and what people were doing in an employment office. I said people often asked directions at a police box in Japan, and asked if it was the same in case of the police station here. He said there were no police boxes here. "People do not ask directions in the police station," he said. I was very surprised and remembered that I had never seen police boxes here. I asked him just for in case, if people would pay money after meeting doctors at hospital because I was thinking to describe what people were supposed to do at a hospital. My original ideas were waiting for a doctor, meeting a doctor, and paying money. But he said people sometimes did not pay if their insurance covered. I was surprised. I told him that teaching ESL made me realize how much I did not know about the life here. I thought when I was teaching English in Japan, I was talking about a hospital in Japan, for example, not a hospital in this country in spite of the fact that I was teaching English, not Japanese. I said to him, "I wish I were a native speaker." I have lived here for two years, but I still have so much that I do not know about a daily life here. (TL1, page 4, 10-1-98)

She ended her log on a rather depressing note, again recounting how much she did not know.

> If my students were thinking to study abroad, there might be something that I could be helpful for them, I think, because in that case I would be able to use some of my knowledge about the other countries and linguistic knowledge about English. However, the people I am meeting every night are studying English to have a better life here. I have lived here only for two years. I do not know how to call for a job interview, how to write a job application form, and how to be successful in a job interview though they are going to be taught in following weeks. I have never worked here, so I do not know how people are interacting in a working place. I guess the students know better than I because most of them are working. I do not know how to look for housing very well, I do not know how people buy houses. I cannot be helpful very much for them, I think. I do not know both English and skills which they want to know in order to live here.

> What I wrote sounds very negative and depressing, but I enjoy going to the class very much every night. (TL1, page 5, 10-1-98)

In her final report for the semester, Sachiko wrote that because of her lack of knowledge regarding life in the U.S. as well as her lack of awareness of the needs of her students, she had not done a very effective job teaching.

> Compared with my own teaching in Japan, I think my teaching here is very shameful. I am even ashamed saying that I have a five-year teaching experience in Japan because of the fact that I myself know I am not doing well here. . . . If I would stay in this country and teach English, I think I need to improve everything. First of all, I should not be so nervous. I should know the students' proficiency level as well as their needs so that I could make lessons which have an appropriate level of difficulty and also meet their needs. I should be able to speak clearly and slowly, choosing the vocabulary the students can understand. I think the main reason why I could not do as well as I did in Japan was that I did not know almost anything about the students. (FR, page 3, 12-11-98)

In our post-lesson interviews, Sachiko consistently referred to the struggle she was having both with teaching adults as opposed to young people and with her lack of knowledge about her students' needs and their life in the U.S. In my interview notes after my last observation of her teaching, I wrote,

> Sachiko questioned her choice of topic for the class (recipes). She said she was struggling with what topic would be sophisticated enough for adults but not too difficult in terms of language. She mentioned that she (and the master teacher) had little sense of when these adults actually used English. She was surprised that students hadn't been asked this. She emphasized how much harder it was here to teach adults rather than junior and senior high students in Japan. She said this again was due to choosing a mature topic and dealing with it in simple language. (FN, page 1, 11-4-98)

Although Sachiko believed that her lack of knowledge of U.S. culture and of the needs of her students was a significant obstacle to her teaching effectiveness, it was clear that the experience raised her awareness of the relationship between language and culture and her conviction that needs assessment is critical to effective teaching. As in the case of Mariko, Sachiko's placement may have exacerbated her personal teaching concerns since the fact that her students were adults who had lived in the U.S. longer than she meant that they knew more than she did about U.S. culture. Believing that the teacher should be the knower, she was convinced she had done an inadequate job teaching.

Sadayuki: "I like innovative ways to teach."

Unlike Mariko and Sachiko, Sadayuki had had no previous teaching experience in Japan, although he had recently passed the exam to get a teaching credential and had a job teaching high school English when he returned to Japan. He was the youngest of the focus students and had spent less time in an English-speaking country than any of the other students. In light of these factors, one might have anticipated that he would have had the most difficulty in coping with the many challenges of being an ESL teacher. However, my observations of his classes, as well as his own reflections on his teaching, suggested otherwise.

Sadayuki chose to work in a credit-bearing community college reading course. His pupils were the most proficient of all of the students' pupils, except for Mariko, who, as mentioned earlier, was very nervous about her own competency in teaching such high level students. Although Sadayuki did express some reservations about his competency in English, he was much more concerned about how he could design lessons that he believed were innovative. As he put it in his final report. "I like innovative ways to teach. So, I want to keep in mind that my teaching style in the future will be very different from that of today." (FR, page 3, 12-11-98)

He was fortunate to work with a mentor teacher who encouraged him to experiment with new ways of presenting materials to students and provided him with a great deal of feedback on his teaching, which he took very seriously. In trying to use new activities, his mentor teacher pointed out that he often spent too much time explaining the directions. In fact, as his mentor teacher pointed out it in her log, "The instructions were often so detailed that he even forgot to tell the students some important aspects of the tasks because he gave more attention to the smaller details" (ML, page 1, 12-5-98). Sadayuki took this feedback very seriously and experimented with different ways of giving directions. In his final report, he reflected on his own progress in learning to give directions.

> I tried several ways to give directions. I used models about activity, oral explanations, printed handout, written explanations on the board. I was also careful with the timing to give Ss handouts since if I gave them handouts at the beginning of the activities, Ss would pay attention to the handout and never listen to me.
>
> Still now, I haven't come up with the "best" way to give Ss directions. (FR, page 3, 12-7-98)

In one of our post-lesson interviews, Sadayuki and I talked about his struggle to find out the best way to give directions to a class.

> Sadayuki talked about how he had to acquire the metacognitive strategies of giving directions in English in a western culture. He pointed out that models of activities were rarely used in Japanese classrooms when giving directions. (FN, page 1, 10-30-98)

As mentioned earlier, because of the focus in their graduate program on communicative language teaching and student-centered group activities, the students were concerned with implementing group activities in their practicum experience. Sadayuki, perhaps more than any of the other students, tried to implement group activities in his class. In describing his own work in adapting materials in the textbook, he wrote:

> I tried to have as many different kinds of activities as possible throughout the course. Most of the activities were group activities. I received the different kinds of reactions about group activities, especially about the 1st group activity that I did which is called "Literature Circles" mentioned in my third log. I gave the evaluation sheet on Literature Circles. Some students gave me very positive comments on group work in which each S had his or her own role. . . . But a few of the Ss commented that the group activity was not helpful. . . . One reason about the negative feedback on the group work in general is, I assume, because of Ss' educational background. Since many Ss in this course might have been accustomed to the teacher-centered style or might feel secure because of their language proficiency if the class is teacher-centered and there is fewer opportunities to talk, they may not prefer group work as a learning process. Another reason might be that my explaining about the rationale of the group activity to SS was not clear . . .
>
> In conclusion what I learned was it might be helpful for me to assess the Ss' preference about learning styles. . . . I am sure I will use some assessment procedures for my future teaching at a Japanese high school though I can predict now that they will prefer teacher-centered instruction. But I may be able to change the class atmosphere into more student-centered little by little, not all of a sudden. (FR, page 2-3, 12-11-98)

This entry was typical of Sadayuki's general approach to teaching. He liked to experiment with new ways of teaching, but he was equally concerned with carefully assessing how successful the activity had been. In addition, he was fully aware of the fact that what was successful in a U.S. context may not be successful in a Japanese context. Indeed, he was the one in the group interview who half jokingly pointed out that he would probably have to wait five years on his new job before trying to implement significant changes in classroom methodology.

Conclusion

The Practicum Course

As a regular course supervisor for the practicum experience of a MA TESOL program this examination of Japanese teacher trainees' reflections on their practicum experience has raised my awareness of the need for change in several areas of the practicum course. First, more counseling needs to be implemented in the placement of teacher trainees in their practicum, particularly for nonnative speakers. Whereas many teacher trainees are aware of their lack of knowledge of English, being a nonnative speaker of English can make this concern paramount, particularly as it relates to cultural knowledge. One might argue that placing nonnative teacher trainees in more advanced level ESL classes could exacerbate this concern. However, as is evident from the issues raised by Sadayuki's reflections, some teacher trainees placed in advanced classes are less concerned with their lack of knowledge than with other issues of being an effective teacher. Hence, more extensive interviews with teacher trainees and their teaching concerns may help practicum supervisors counsel teacher trainees to select a context that would be most beneficial to their development as teachers.

Second, to the extent that practicum experiences encourage teacher trainees to undertake reflections on their teaching experience, it is important that the experience include mechanisms for bringing teacher trainees from what Stanley (1998) terms engaging in reflection to practicing reflection so that teachers apply the insights they have gained through reflection to their own teaching context. Although this can be done and often is done in practicum supervisors' conferences with teacher trainees, additional ways of helping teacher trainees modify their teaching actions based on their teaching reflections might be incorporated throughout the program. Stoynoff (1999), for example, describes how the practicum experience at his university is integrated into the academic program for the entire 12 months of the program, involving the active participation of mentor teachers, graduate program faculty advisors, language institute administrators, and the teacher trainees themselves. Although such a practicum involves greater costs and coordination, Stoynoff contends that such a model "offers students an integrated, developmental experience that acknowledges the long-term process of learning to teach and becoming members of a profession" (p. 150). Implementing a long-term integrated approach to the practicum would allow teacher trainees to examine their teaching reflections within the context of their academic program. Hence, for example, if the practicum experience had been integrated throughout the graduate program, the teacher trainees' specific concern with the methodology implemented by their mentor teachers as well as their concern for its appropriateness in a Japanese context could have been raised in the context of their methods courses.

The Japanese Native Speaker as a Teacher Trainee in an ESL Context

The difficulties these five Japanese teacher trainees encountered in their practicum may seem to suggest that there are few benefits for Japanese graduate teacher trainees to have an ESL teaching experience. There are, however, several benefits these teacher trainees did gain from the experience. First, even though several of the teacher trainees such as Mariko and Sachiko expressed a lack of knowledge about English grammar and vocabulary, their struggle with these facets of English served to increase their knowledge of English. Whereas Sachiko was not originally familiar with the differences between such words as "clinic" and "hospital," or "day-care center" and "nursery school" in the U.S. context, her practicum experience provided her with this information. Even more importantly, this experience highlighted for Sachiko the fact that the meaning of lexical items is embedded in the cultural context of their use. As such, her language expertise, in Rampton's (1990) sense, was increased. In addition, the teacher trainees were developing one important attribute of a native speaker, an attribute highlighted by Medgyes (1992; 1994), namely the ability to provide their students with more cultural information surrounding the use of English.

Secondly, experiences such as Koji's uncertainty as to whether or not ESL students need a focus on accuracy or Sachiko's questioning of whether or not ESL students should learn to talk about jobs because this was an acceptable U.S. classroom topic served to raise the teacher trainees' awareness that student needs and appropriate classroom topics may differ cross-culturally. Finally, because of the contrasts the teacher trainees experienced between a largely teacher-centered Japanese English classroom and more student-centered U.S. classrooms, the teacher trainees were forced to consider the advantages and disadvantages of each and their appropriateness for different contexts. In the process of examining these two types of classrooms, not only were they increasing their repertoire of teaching approaches, but they were also learning to assess these approaches in light of specific teaching contexts.

Perhaps the most difficult challenge confronting these five teacher trainees is the one they may face as they return to Japan and their English teaching careers. The expertise they have gained in their graduate program in terms of linguistic knowledge and teaching methods may not be valued and perhaps may even be viewed by some as a threat. On the other hand, hopefully their increased awareness of how language and teaching methods are socially and culturally bound will help them apply their new expertise in ways that are highly productive for English teaching in the Japanese context.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank my five Japanese graduate students who so willingly and perceptively shared with me their reactions to their ESL practicum experience. I also thank the mentor teachers for sharing with me their reactions to the students' teaching experience and Shimako Iwasaki for her careful job in transcribing the group interview.

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Notes

1. For a recent description of two practicum experiences, one in the EFL and the other in an ESL context, see Flowerdew, 1999 and Stoynoff, 1999.
2. However, see Johnson 1996 for a report on a case study of one teacher trainee's practicum experience.
3. All names are pseudonyms.
4. All excerpts are marked with the source of the data, the page number, and the date. The following abbreviations are used with the data.
   TL - the students' teaching logs
   BQ - the students' language and teaching background questionnaire
   FR - the students' final report
   GI - transcripts of the group interview
   FN - the author's field notes
   ML - the mentor teachers' logs
5. The following symbols have been used in the transcripts:
   ... : trailing off / pause
   * : unintelligible speech
   ? : question / rising contour
6. I am grateful to one of the *JALT Journal* reviewers for pointing out this possibility.

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(Received February 1, 1999; revised May 7, 1999)

Teacher Codeswitching in the EFL Classroom

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Language teachers' use of their students' native language during second/foreign instruction is often viewed negatively, even by the teachers themselves. However, teachers' occasional codeswitching between the target language and their students' L1 may have some positive effects. The present study analyzes the codeswitching of a Japanese teacher in one EFL classroom. The data shows that the teacher's codeswitching into the students' L1 not only performed a number of social functions, but also played an important interactional role.

語学教師による学生の第一言語の使用は教師自身によって否定的に捉えられている。しかしながら教師による学生の第一言語と目標言語とのコード切り替えは、時として肯定的な効果もあると考えられる。本研究は、一人の日本人教師の英語授業内におけるコード切り替えを検討した。分析の結果、教師の日本語と英語のコード切り替えは教室内でいくつかの社会的役割を持つばかりでなく、談話における重要な役割を持っていることがわかった。

It is generally agreed that Japanese is the main language used for English instruction in the majority of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classes taught by Japanese teachers in Japan. Kaneko (1991) investigated 12 Japanese junior and senior high school EFL classes and found that the teachers spent approximately 70% of the time instructing the students in Japanese. Similarly, LoCastro (1996) points out "the strong preference for the use of Japanese" (p. 49) in a great majority of Japanese EFL classes. However, as Polio and Duff (1994) have argued, it may not be reasonable to expect nonnative teachers to use the target language (TL) exclusively, since the teachers themselves have probably had limited exposure to the TL and its culture.

In general, use of the first language (L1) in EFL or ESL (English as a Second Language) classrooms has been controversial. Some researchers have found benefits in using the students' L1, especially in facilitating the development of useful learning strategies (e.g., Atkinson, 1987; Auerbach, 1993). However, the TL-only notion is still so powerful that EFL/ESL teachers who admit that they use the students' L1 in their classes are usually apologetic (Adendorff, 1996; Auerbach, 1993; Canagarajah, 1995).

The aim of the present paper is to describe some positive effects of one teacher's English-Japanese codeswitching (CS) behavior in an EFL classroom in Japan.

Research on Codeswitching

Codeswitching is defined as the "alternations of linguistic varieties within the same conversation" (Myers-Scotton, 1993c, p. 1) and is recognized as a "common characteristic of bilingual speech" (Grosjean, 1982, p. 146). Dabène (1990) divides CS into two types: *CS by incompetence* and *intentional CS*. Earlier works on CS focused on the *CS by incompetence* model and CS was thus regarded as a remedial strategy used by people who were not fluent in the L2.[1] However in a study of CS between dialects in a Norwegian village, Blom and Gumperz (1972) showed that CS is indeed the normal behavior of bi-/multilinguals since it fulfills various sociolinguistic functions. Although the study dealt with CS between dialects, not languages, it stimulated considerable subsequent research on CS between languages (Myers-Scotton, 1993c). Thereafter, research on CS often focused on what Dabène (1990) termed *intentional CS* (e.g., Dabène, 1990; Dabène & Billiez, 1986; Eastman, 1992), and now such linguistic variation is considered "a strategy for accomplishing something" (Myers-Scotton, 1993c, p. 94).[2]

There are two main types of research on CS: linguistic research and sociolinguistic research. The former analyzes the syntactic nature of a switch, examining the type of grammar a bilingual speaker uses in both languages and investigating which grammatical items tend to be switched. Research investigating the grammatical features of CS between two typologically different languages (e.g., Kato, 1994; Nishimura, 1989) as well as two typologically similar languages (e.g., Poplack, 1980) has found that CS is syntactically rule-governed regardless of the typological difference between the two languages. Regarding this point, Myers-Scotton (1993b) claims that "typological specifics of the language pair may determine the options chosen, but the options themselves are not language-specific" (p. 492). Myers-Scotton's claim is reflected in her Matrix Language-Frame model (Myers-Scotton, 1993a; 1993b), which views the basic constraints of CS in any two languages as being under the control of the same abstract production process. In terms of grammatical items that are subject to CS, switches of nouns or other single items have generally been found to be the most frequent (see Fotos, 1995; Kato, 1994; Poplack, 1988).[3]

The second type of CS research, sociolinguistic research, attempts to investigate the sociolinguistic functions of a switch. Two kinds of CS have been proposed: situational and conversational, or metaphorical (Blom & Gumperz, 1972; Gumperz, 1982). In situational codeswitching, people switch codes in association with particular settings or activities. This type of CS can be linked to the concept of diglossia in society (Gardner-Chloros, 1991). In conversational or metaphorical CS, people employ CS within a single speech exchange to convey "metaphorical" meaning. This type of CS is closely associated with the individual's discourse style and his/her language choices. While many researchers find the distinction between the two types of CS useful, some researchers have found problems with the distinction, claiming that the use of the terms is ambiguous or inconsistent (e.g., Auer, 1984; Myers-Scotton, 1993c).[4]

Studies of the sociolinguistic aspects of CS have examined the motivations underlying CS. For example, CS has been used to "express shared ethnic identity" (Nishimura, 1995, p. 157), to show shared experience and solidarity (Duppenthaler & Yoshizawa, 1997), to encode power and solidarity (Goyvaerts, 1992), to accommodate to the linguistic environment (Gardner-Chloros, 1991), and to "express authority along with anger or annoyance" (Myers-Scotton, 1993c, p. 133).

Most research of CS in ESL/EFL classrooms has investigated how CS performs various sociolinguistic functions, although L2 learners' CS between the L1 and the TL has often been regarded as due to low proficiency in the TL. However, recent research findings have shown that students' CS may be intentional and may fulfill various social functions. Fotos (1995) looked at learners' CS in EFL classrooms in Japan. Her analysis of CS indicated that her subjects switched from English into Japanese to: 1) indicate topics; 2) emphasize important utterances; 3) clarify; 4) frame discourse; 5) separate feelings from facts; and 6) signal repair. Her subjects' use of these functions suggests that they were successful both in making their speech salient to their listeners and enriching their speech. Ogane (1997) also looked at EFL learners' CS in an English classroom in Japan. She found that the learners used CS both to involve their interlocutors in communication and to express "their dual identities of L1 speaker and L2 learner" (p. 119).

Studies which examine teachers' CS have also explored the sociolinguistic functions of codeswitching. Canagarajah (1995) studied teachers' CS in L2 classrooms in Jaffna and found that CS served useful functions for classroom management and content transmission. Summarizing the different functions that CS served in the classrooms, Canagarajah concludes that English is generally used as the code symbolizing formality or detachment, while Tamil is used as the code which expressed informality and familiarity. Merritt, Cleghorn, Abagi and Bunyi (1992) examined teachers' CS among English, Swahili, and mother tongues[5] in three primary schools in Kenya. They found that CS between languages is often used in order to focus or regain students' attention or to clarify lesson materials. Much like Canagarajah (1995), they also found that the Kenyan teachers used their mother tongue or Swahili for more affectively positive matters and English for more formal matters. Thus, these two studies have linked teachers' CS in classrooms with affective factors. However, there have been few studies investigating Japanese teachers' CS in EFL classrooms.

Research Questions

The present study describes a Japanese teacher's CS behavior in an EFL classroom and addresses the following three questions:

1. What are the functions of teacher L1 use or CS in the Japanese EFL classroom?
2. In what discourse context does teacher CS tend to occur?
3. What are some effects of teacher CS in the classroom?

Method

The data analyzed for this study are based on 23 minutes taken from a 60-minute video-recorded EFL class and a subsequent audio-recorded session in which the teacher and the students viewed and discussed the 23-minute segment. This retrospective session was conducted one week after the video-recorded class session.

Subjects

There were only two male Japanese students registered for the EFL class and these students agreed to be video- and audio-recorded. They were enrolled in a required elementary level first-year Business English class taught by a Japanese teacher (the writer of this paper) at a business college in Tokyo. Shin and Taro (not their real names) were 19 years old at the time of recording. The class met once a week for 60 minutes and the aim of the course was to equip students with the basic English conversational skills needed for business. Although both students had studied English in junior and senior high school for a total of six years, this was their first experience studying conversational English. At the time of the recording they had been studying English at the business college for five months.

The students' English proficiency and motivation for studying English was low. Shin had passed the third (next to the lowest) level of the STEP (the Society of Testing English Proficiency) test[6] when he was in high school but he refused to study for subsequent proficiency tests. Taro had passed the fourth level of the STEP test when he was in junior high school but had not taken any proficiency tests since. Although the teacher usually spoke only English in her other classes, in this type of class, with students at such a low proficiency level, she sometimes used the students' L1, Japanese, as well.

Procedures

A 60-minute lesson was video- and audio-recorded at the business college and a 23-minute segment was transcribed and analyzed. The video camera was placed in front of the students throughout the lesson and the audiocassette recorder was placed on a table between the two students. The 23-minute segment occurred approximately two minutes after the class started and can be divided into three parts. In the first part the teacher and the students casually talked about how they spent their weekend. In the second part the students worked on a "strip story" activity[7] based on a dialogue. Although they had studied the dialogue previously, the activity was quite difficult for them and it took over 10 minutes to finish. In the third part the students tried to perform a pair activity, but had considerable difficulty understanding the procedure. The remainder of the lesson was not transcribed because the students worked on the pair activity by themselves and there was little teacher-student interaction.

One week after the recording the students were asked to attend a playback session of the 23-minute segment and this retrospective session was also audio-recorded. The session was conducted outside the class time. Following Tannen's (1984) suggestions that it is important for a researcher to give control of the recorder to the subjects–especially when the researcher is one of the subjects–to make comments on their own ideas, the teacher/researcher attended the session, but refrained from comment. However, when the students did not discuss a part of the tape that the researcher was interested in, she played the part again and elicited their comments through use of general questions in Japanese such as "What is going on in this segment?" or "How did you feel then?"

Transcription and Analysis of the Data

The 23-minute segment was first transcribed using a simplified version of the Jefferson transcription system (Atkinson & Heritage, 1984). After identifying all occurrences of CS the researcher retranscribed each instance in detail, relying on both the audio-tape and video-tape. Coding and interpreting was done with the help of several additional coders who were qualitative researchers. Although inter-rater reliability was not established, the coding of the examples was checked repeatedly through discussions, as suggested in the CS literature (e.g., Canagarajah, 1995; Fotos, 1995). In the transcript, the Japanese switches are given in italics, and idiomatic translations are provided under the Japanese utterances. Since an interactional sociolinguistic approach was used for analyzing the data, presentation of the transcribed portions in "close transcription" format is suggested to be necessary. The Jefferson system (see the transcription conventions in the Appendix) is the most widely used system in the field of discourse/conversation analysis and is designed to represent dynamics of turn taking such as overlaps, gaps, pauses, and audible breathing, and characteristics of speech delivery such as stress, enunciation, intonation, and pitch (see the discussion in Hutchby & Wooffitt, 1998). In the past, researchers have argued that turn-taking (e.g., Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974) and prosody (e.g., Gumperz, 1982) convey significant meanings, and the interpretations of the present data are largely based on those characteristics of discourse. Therefore, the notation of these features in the transcripts is necessary to support interpretation of the data.

Close transcription has been mentioned (Davis, 1992; 1995; Brown, in press) as an important criterion contributing to the credibility of discourse analysis such as in the present research. Here credibility refers to demonstrating that the researcher's reconstruction of meaning is a believable and accurate version of the discourse studied (Davis, 1992; 1995; Brown, in press). Research in discourse analysis must, therefore, achieve credibility by attaching transcripts of audio and video recordings giving the talk and actions that have occurred, thereby allow the readers to reanalyze and check the author's interpretations for themselves.

Full transcription also contributes to *confirmability*, the "full revelation or at least the availability of the data upon which all interpretations are based" (Brown, in press, p. 328). As mentioned, most of the interpretations in this research are based on both video- and audio-recorded interactions in the classroom, so it is necessary for the transcript portions presented to show as much detail as possible.

Results and Discussion

In the first 5 1/2 minutes of the 23-minute segment Shin and Taro talk about what they did on the weekend and the teacher does not use any Japanese. It is after the 5 1/2-minute segment that the teacher begins to use some Japanese. At this point she introduces the first activity. As shown in Table 1, in the rest of the transcribed segment, the teacher uttered 140 Japanese words (approximately 18% of the total number of words in this segment as measured by a word processor word count function).

Table 1: Frequency of Teacher's L1 and L2 Use

Language	English (TL)	Japanese (L1)	Total
Number of words	618 (81.53%)	140 (18.47%)	758* (100%)

*In counting words, backchannels (e.g., un, mhm, uhuh), short responses (e.g. un, yes), and proper nouns (e.g., Taro, Shin, A, B) were omitted.

The functions of teacher CS will now be examined. Any use of Japanese by the teacher is considered to be CS because the base language in the teacher's utterances during the lesson is English, as shown in Table 1. The discourse environment in which the CS took place will then be examined, especially the students' reactions. Finally, the effect of CS on the discourse will be discussed.

Types of Codeswitching

Analysis of the data revealed that most of the teacher's CS occurred in four contexts: (1) Explaining prior L2 utterances; (2) Defining unknown words; (3) Giving instructions; and (4) Providing positive and negative feedback. The number of each type of switch and the percentage of the total accounted for by each type of switch are presented in Table 2.

Examples of each type of CS are given and discussed below.

Table 2: Frequency of Each Type of Teacher CS

			Type of CS			
	explanation	definition	instruction	feedback		Total
				negative	positive	
# times	10 (33.33%)	7 (23.33%)	5 (16.67%)	6 (20.00%)	2 (6.67%)	30* (100%)
# words	63 (45.00%)	23 (16.43%)	35 (25.00%)	14 (10.00%)	5 (3.57%)	140** (100%)

* Total number of times does not include the teacher's short response *uns* 'yes' to the students' questions. If those *uns* are included, the total frequency is 37.
**Total number of words does not include backchannel *uns* or short response *uns*.

Explanation of prior L2 utterances

Explanation of prior L2 utterances was the most frequently occurring type of CS, with 10 occurrences (33.33%) in the data. The teacher frequently provided an L1 "explanation" of what she had previously said in the TL by reformulating or repeating phrases or sentences. Fotos (1995) refers to this function of CS as "switching for emphasis." She found that both EFL students and bilingual children used CS to repeat important utterances. This kind of CS is also found frequently in research on ESL/EFL teachers' CS in the classroom (e.g., Canagarajah, 1995; Merritt et al., 1992; Polio & Duff, 1994). Explanation in the L1 makes the content of teachers' talk easier for learners to understand. Furthermore, Canagarajah (1995) argues that teachers' reformulation or repetition in the L1 provides learners with "an opportunity to check their understanding of the previous statement" (p. 187). Although CS in this category may function as "emphasis" as well, as Canagarajah (1995) comments, in teacher-student interactions a major reasons that a teacher uses the L1 to repeat or reformulate what she has previously said in the TL is that the teacher feels that students' competence is too limited for them to understand lengthy statements in the TL and they need an L1 explanation. Therefore, I selected Canagarajah's term "explanation" over other similar ones in the literature. Instances from the present study are shown in Examples 1 and 2 (see Appendix for transcription conventions).

Example 1

147. Shin: A *ga* first.
'A is the first.'
148. Teacher: hh could you read A one more time? (.) >*mouikkai A yonde mite*<
'Would you read A once more?'
149. Shin: *yomun desuka*
'Do I read?'
150. Teacher: *un*
'Yeah.'

In the example above, the teacher repeats her English utterance in Japanese.

Example 2

((The teacher is talking while distributing slips of paper for the first activity.))

122. Teacher: You don't have to open your textbook yet. Don't

open. I just want you to have these (2.0). Don't show it to Shin. Don't show it to Shin.
123. Shin: *e nandesuka*
'Huh? What?'

((The teacher finishes distributing slips of paper and goes back to her seat. The students remain silent.))

124. Teacher: You just read (.) and <find out (.) which comes first second third and fourth (.) find out the order.> (.)
dorega saishoni kite douiu junjoka. (.)
misenai otagaini misenaide yomimasu (.) sorede kokoni kaitearukara A
ga saki toka B ga saki toka C ga saki toka D ga saki toka °futaride°
'Which one comes first and in what order? Don't show, don't show them to the other person. And as (the letters) are written here, you two work together and (figure out) which one comes first, A or B or C or D.'

Here the utterances in Japanese in line 124 reformulate the previous English statements in lines 122 and 124.

Definition of unknown words

Studies of CS in ESL/EFL classrooms often mention that teachers provide definitions of words in the students' L1 (e.g., Canagarajah, 1995; Polio & Duff, 1994). This type of CS always occurred after the students asked for the meaning of words that had appeared in the texts, as shown in Example 3 below.

Example 3

((Shin is reading a slip of paper in the first activity.))

229. Shin: Maybe you (.) should be a se, securitary *tte nandesuka*
'What does "securitary" mean?'
230. Teacher: Secretary (.) *bisho.*
'Secretary.'
231. Taro: [((yawning))]
232. Shin: *bisho*
'Secretary.'

In Example 3, Shin asks the meaning of "secretary" and the teacher gives the Japanese counterpart, *bisho.*

Giving instructions

CS for giving instructions is different from the previous types of CS (explanation of prior L2 utterances or definitions of unknown words) since what the teacher says in the L1 is neither a repetition of a previous utterance in the TL nor an answer to a student's request for the meaning of a word, but is totally new information. Merritt et al. (1992) claim that this type of CS can be used as a communication strategy which serves as a tool to focus or redirect students' attention. In the example below, the teacher accepts Shin's answer and tries to finish up the activity by having the students read the dialogue once more. When she tells students to read the dialogue again, she switches into Japanese.

Example 4

248. Shin: *ttekotowa* B D [A C]?
249. Taro: [((clearing throat))]
250. Teacher: Uh-huh oh kay (?) [a:::nd] *jaa sono junban de saigo tadashii junbande mouikkai yondemimashou (.) hai*
'Then, in that order, finally, in the correct order, let's read them again, go.'
251. Shin: [°B D A C°]

Positive and negative feedback

The teacher often switched into Japanese to inform the students that they were correct or to criticize them or say that they were wrong. According to Merritt et al. (1992), effective bilingual teachers often develop this type of ability, called "modality splitting" and referring to the differentiation of codes or channels according to differing communicative needs. Students gradually learn the significance of the use of specific codes for specific functions, so teachers can use modality splitting CS to orient students to various classroom requirements. In a number of foreign language classrooms it has been observed that teachers codeswitch along modality lines: one language (usually the TL) for instruction and the other (usually the L1) to signal affective emotions and asides (e.g., Adendorff, 1996; Canagarajah, 1995; Merritt et al., 1992). Similarly Gumperz (1982) distinguishes a "we code" (usually a minority language) and a "they code" (usually the majority language) and argues that the "we code" signifies more informality and intimacy than the "they code." In EFL classrooms in which use of English is the norm, Japanese seems to be the "we code" implying informality and friendliness.

In the present data the teacher primarily used English for instruction within the class. However, when she chatted with the students outside of the English class she always used Japanese. For example in the playback session in which the teacher and the students talked casually about the lesson, the teacher used only Japanese. Moreover one of Shin's comments in the playback session indicates that Japanese was the code the students wanted the teacher to use. He said, (translation) "In your class, you don't give enough explanation in Japanese. I always want you to speak more in Japanese." Thus, the teacher seems to have used Japanese for affective purposes rather than instructional purposes, especially when she gave positive and negative feedback.

Use of CS to provide positive feedback is also found in Canagarajah's study (1995), when teachers used the L1 to express compliments to students. Canagarajah suggested that compliments in the TL are routine, whereas compliments given in the L1 have impact and are more effective in strengthening the force of the speech act.

Positive feedback: In this paper, positive feedback refers to praise or a compliment uttered by the teacher. In the data there were only two cases of positive feedback, both of which were uttered in Japanese.[8] The two cases occurred when the students accomplished something that was difficult for them. One instance took place when the students finished the first activity, and the other occurred when the students finally understood how to perform the pair activity. As explained in the previous section, completing the first activity and understanding the procedure of the second activity were the most complicated tasks for the students in the transcribed segment. When the students accomplished those tasks, the teacher praised them in Japanese, the code the students preferred the teacher to use, thus strengthening the force of the positive evaluation. In Example 5, the teacher provided positive feedback, *un soudesu* (Yes, that's right), with a high falling tone when Shin understood how to perform the second activity.

Example 5

303. Shin: *de yousuruni kono can she [type] toka can she use a*
compu[ter] tokatte iufuuni kiite ikundesuka=
'And, in short, we are supposed to ask "can she type" or "can she use a computer" and so on?'
304. Teacher: [*un*] [*un*]
305. Teacher: =*un soudesu*
'Yes, that's right.'

Negative feedback: Negative feedback in this paper refers to error correction or criticism given to the students. The teacher's negative feedback was always preceded by a student's language error or failure of some type. In providing negative feedback, the teacher sometimes used Japanese and the switches were almost always accompanied by Japanese final particles (e.g., *desho, ne*). Studies of final particles in Japanese often claim that these function as markers for showing an attitude of cooperation (e.g., Itani, 1996; Maynard, 1993). Regarding the mitigating or soothing effect of the L1, according to Canagarajah (1995), bilingual teachers often utter tags, discourse markers, particles, and backchannel cues in the L1 in order to reduce their perceived power over their students. In the following example, the teacher provides negative feedback in Japanese when she blames the students for their failure to remember what they have studied before, but softens the feedback with the final particles *ne* and *desho*.

Example 6

((The teacher and the students are discussing the first activity after its completion.))

267. Teacher: We did it before (.) summer vacation. (5.0)
268. Teacher: °*ne mitakoto arudesho?*°
See? You've seen it before, haven't you?'
269. Taro: [((nods strongly))]
270. Shin: *[e] yarimashita koko.*
'Really? Did we study this page?'

In line 267, the teacher informs students that they have done the activity before. However, there is a long pause following line 267. This pause, as well as the difficulty the students had in completing the activity, suggests that the students did not remember performing the activity previously. Therefore the teacher's comment in line 268 is criticizing the students by indicating that they should have remembered the dialogue. However, by using Japanese, especially the final particles *ne* and *desho*, the criticism is mitigated. As indicated in Examples 5 and 6, the teacher's L1 utterances strengthened the force of the act when she gave positive feedback and mitigated the force of the act when she provided negative feedback.

Thus in the present study the teacher used switches into the L1 to define unknown words, to explain prior L2 utterances, to give instruction, and to provide positive and negative feedback.

Codeswitching "Triggers"

In the previous section, several social functions of CS in teacher talk were explored, and as in most previous research, the analysis examined the utterances of the CS sender (i.e., the teacher). However, to understand the local environment in which the CS took place, it is necessary to examine the discourse environment of all participants in the speech act, especially the listeners' reactions. According to Bilmes (1997) listeners are active participants in interactions and send various signals in the form of facial expressions, postural variations, eye movements, and short vocalizations. Bilmes suggests that one can not understand what is going on in a social scene by examining the behavior of only one participant in the interaction.[9] Therefore, in this section, the focus is on students' verbal and nonverbal behavior in the discourse environment in which the CS occurred.

Interestingly, a closer look at the discourse environment revealed that regardless of the function the teacher's CS performed, it was always in response to the students' behavior, either "positive achievement" or "negative responsiveness." "Positive achievement" refers to the students' successful completion of a difficult task. In such cases, as presented in the previous section, the teacher provided "positive feedback" in Japanese. The teacher responded to the students' "positive achievement" by switching into Japanese, intensifying the force of the positive evaluation. In this case, CS functioned as an affect-creating device.

Students are considered to be showing "negative responsiveness" if they fail to give an appropriate response in a timely manner.[10] When the students showed "negative responsiveness," the teacher occasionally responded by switching into the L1 for explanation, instruction, definition, or "negative feedback." As mentioned, CS for negative feedback has an affective function. Therefore, in the case of negative feedback, the teacher's CS represents not only a response to the students' negative responsiveness but a display of affect as well. The students' negative responsiveness may be a result of their lack of comprehension due to a lack of proficiency in the TL. However, some of the comments by Shin and Taro during the playback session indicate that their lack of comprehension may also be due to boredom, uneasiness, sleepiness, or discomfort. In the playback session, both Shin and Taro admitted that they had felt uncomfortable during the lesson. Shin said, (translation) "I felt dull and sleepy during the lesson," and Taro said, (translation) "I felt reluctant to study." Moreover, Taro expressed the high anxiety he had felt during the lesson. He said (translation), "I felt very nervous about being called on throughout the lesson." The students' negative responsiveness was indicated verbally and nonverbally, as will be explained below.

Verbal indicators of "negative responsiveness"

Verbal indicators of negative responsiveness shown in the data included verbal expressions of incomprehension or incorrect interpretation of the teacher's TL input by the students, as in the following examples.

Example 7

190. Teacher: Shin (from the first one) would you read the two.
191. Shin: *mise[te]*
'{Should I} show {you}?'
192. Teacher: >*[ryo]ubou ryoubou yonde*< *un*
'Both, read both, uh-huh.'
193. Shin: ((reading)) D ga "I'm not sure I can type pretty well (.) Maybe you should be a secretary."

In the example above, the teacher tells Shin to read two slips of paper in line 190, but Shin interprets her utterance as a request to show the slips to the teacher. As soon as Shin starts to say *misete* '{Should I} show {you}?' in line 191, the teacher notices Shin's lack of comprehension of her prior TL utterance and therefore switches into the L1 for an explanation (line 192). The teacher's Japanese utterance is then followed by Shin's compliance as he begins to read (line 193). In the next segment, the student also expresses his incorrect interpretation verbally.

Example 8

((Taro has been told to read a slip of paper labeled "A" but starts reading "B."))

161. Taro: I'm starting to.
162. Teacher: *sore B desho?*
'That's B, isn't it?'
163. Taro: *a hontoda.*
'Oh, that's right.'
164. Shin: °*oi yare yare*°
'Oh, come on.'
165. Taro: ((starts reading "A")) "But also speak French. I'd like to use that. (.) Do you like to meet people?"

In line 161, Taro starts reading a slip labeled "B" instead of "A" by mistake. The teacher switches into Japanese to give Taro negative feedback, saying that he is reading the wrong strip (line 162). Taro acknowledges his mistake (line 163) and starts reading "A" (line 165). However, what is of interest in this segment is Shin's comment in 164. Shin utters *oi yare yare* (Oh, come on!), a comment that may indicate that Taro's mistake has had a negative effect on the flow of the lesson and the teacher's switched utterance has helped Taro to get back on the "right track" in the interaction.

Nonverbal indicators of "negative responsivenes"

Nonverbal indicators of negative responsiveness include silence, short nods, sighs, yawns, wry grins, giggles, throat clearing, head tilting, looking at the other student, asking the other student privately, or a combination of these features. Among these, silence and short nods are the features that occurred most frequently before the teacher's CS. Silence often indicates interactional problems. For example, in her research on an EFL classroom in Japan, Fujita (1997) found that a long silence following a teacher's question created an uncomfortable atmosphere in the classroom. Short nods may also indicate problems in interaction. Here, short nods refer to relatively brief unaccented nods without vocalization. Writing about Japanese conversation, Mitsuo (1997) notes that "occurrences of these nods without vocalization or minimal vocalizations without nods are associated with a listener whose attention is distracted" (p. 37).

Mitsuo's findings are supported by one of Taro's comments during the playback session. Watching himself make short nods, he said (translation),

> I think I was not comprehending what the teacher was saying at this point. This is the kind of nod I make when I don't understand messages but pretend that I do in order not to disturb the flow of the lesson.

Taro further commented on a minimal vocalization, "yes" without a nod, as the kind of "yes" he usually utters without comprehension or attention. These features, silence and short nods, often occurred in combination with the other features listed above. The following are some examples.

Example 9

((The teacher is explaining how to do the first activity. In the transcript, 't' indicates Taro's gesture, "s" indicates Shin's gesture, "n" indicates a short nod, and 'N' indicates a strong nod. These nonverbal indicators are shown in a line above each sentence.))

120. Teacher: Since it's been long <since we worked on the text
t: n t: n
book last time we are
((t: scratching head)) ((t & s: look at each other))
going to review the unit (.) we worked on last time.>
(1.5) so
121. Taro: ((giggles))
122. Teacher: you don't have to open your textbook yet don't
t: n n n
open. (.) I just want you to have these ((Teacher hands out slips of paper to Taro.)). Don't show it to Shin. Don't show it to Shin.

123. Shin: *e nandesuka?*
'Huh? What?'
(4.0) ((The teacher finishes distributing slips of paper and the students remain silent.))
124. Teacher: You just read (.) and <find out (.) which comes first
t:n t:n t:n
second third and
t: n n t:n t:n n ((t: grins wryly))
fourth (.) find out the order.> (.) *dorega saishoni kite douiu junjoka.* (.)
misenai otagaini misenaide yomimasu (.) *sorede kokoni kaitearukara A ga sakitoka B ga sakitoka C ga sakitoka D ga sakitoka °futaride°*
'Which one comes first and in what order. Don't show, don't show them to the other person. And as {the letters} are written here, you two work together and {figure out} which one comes first, A or B or C or D.'
s: N N N N N
125. Shin: *a:: haa haa haa haa wakarimashita.*
'Oh, hum, hum, hum, hum, I see.'

Commenting on this segment in the playback session, both students admitted that they felt extremely dull, sleepy, and uneasy. These feelings are reflected in their nonverbal behavior. During the teacher's turn in line 120, the students make various nonverbal signs. Taro gives short nods, scratches his head, then both students look at each other. There is a relatively long silence (1.5 seconds). The turn is then followed by Taro's giggle in line 121. The teacher continues explaining in the TL in line 122. During the turn, the students remain quiet, and Taro gives some short nods. In line 123, Shin expresses his lack of comprehension verbally. In line 124, the teacher keeps explaining in the TL very slowly; however, during the explanation, the students again send various nonverbal signs such as short nods, a wry grin, and silence. Finally in the middle of line 124, the teacher switches into a Japanese explanation. This is immediately followed by Shin's positive response to the teacher's utterance in line 125. The next example also illustrates the students' nonverbal negative responsiveness.

Example 10

248. Shin: *tte kotowa* B D [A C]?
'Does it mean {the order is} B D A C?'

249. Taro: [((clearing throat))]
((s: sigh))
250. Teacher: Uh-huh oh kay (?) [a:::::nd] *jaa sono junbande saigo tadashii junbande mouikkai yonde mimashou (.) hai*
'Then, in that order, finally, in the correct order, let's read them again.'
251. Shin: [°B D A C°]
252. Taro: ((reading)) I'm starting to look for a job. (.) What kind?

In the example above, Taro's throat clearing in line 249 and Shin's sigh during the teacher's turn in line 250 are followed by the teacher's switch into Japanese. After the switch, the students immediately follow the teacher's instructions (lines 251 & 252). In the next example Taro's yawn and both students' relatively long silence seems to trigger the teacher's CS.

Example 11

((The teacher and the students are talking about the first activity.))

265. Teacher: That's uh:: <page eighteen.>
(1.0) ((Taro yawns))
266. Shin: Eighteen?
267. Teacher: We did it before (.) summer vacation.
(5.0) ((Both Shin and Taro look down at Shin's textbook and remain silent.))
268. Teacher: °*ne mitakoto arudesho?*°
'See? You've seen it before, haven't you?'
269. Taro: [((nods strongly))]
270. Shin: [e] *yarimashita koko*
'Really? Did we study this page?'
271. Teacher: *un yarimashita*
'Yes, we did.'

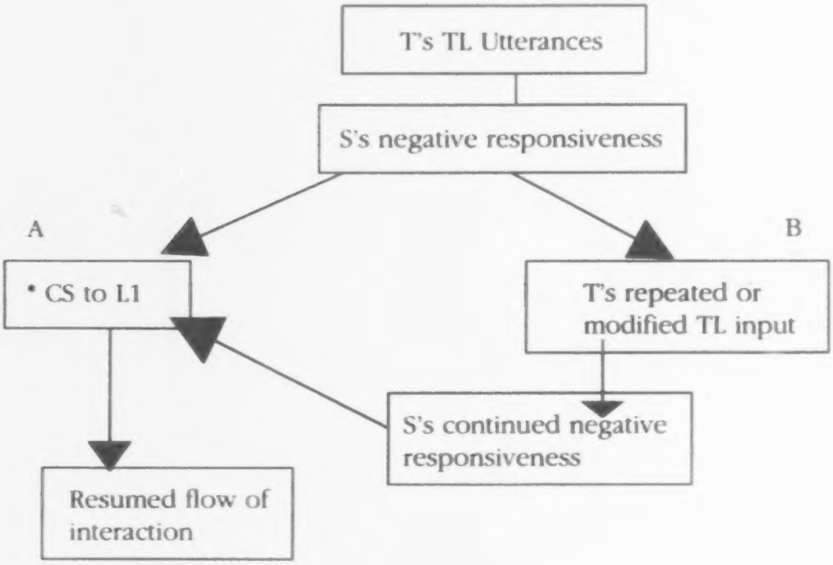
In line 265, the teacher tells students to look at page 18 of the textbook. However, Taro yawns without following her instructions. In line 267, the teacher tells the students that they studied it before summer vacation. The students then look down at the textbook and remain silent for five seconds. While the students are still looking at the textbook, the teacher criticizes the students softly in Japanese, saying *ne mitakoto arudesho?* "you've seen it before, haven't you?" in line 268. The teacher's negative feedback in the L1 is immediately followed by Taro's strong nod in line 269.

As shown above, the students' verbal or nonverbal negative responsiveness often triggered the teacher's CS.

Effects of Codeswitching

In this section the effects of teacher CS into the L1 triggered by the students' negative responsiveness will be examined. Interestingly, as can be seen in the examples in the previous section, when the teacher switched to the L1 in reaction to the students' negative responsiveness, the switches promptly produced reactions to the teacher's preceding utterances. In other words CS seemed to result in the resumption of the flow of interaction. These findings are shown in the left half of Figure 1. When the teacher chose to take Path A (CS to L1) after students displayed negative responsiveness, the flow of interaction resumed.

Figure 1: The relationship between students' negative responsiveness and CS


T's TL Utterances
S's negative responsiveness
A
B
* CS to L1
T's repeated or modified TL input
S's continued negative responsiveness
Resumed flow of interaction

* By the teacher or one of the students.
T: Teacher
CS: Codeswitching
S: Student
TL: Target language (English)
L1: Students' first language (Japanese)

However the teacher did not always switch to Japanese after the students exhibited negative responsiveness. She occasionally repeated or modified her TL utterances. In such cases the students' negative responsiveness continued, and only when the teacher or one of the students switched into Japanese did the flow of the interaction resume. Consider Examples 12 and 13.

Example 12

((The teacher and Taro are talking about Taro's girlfriend.))

t: n n n
80. Teacher: Hum. (1.0) oh kay so how did you get a girlfriend?
t:n
81. Taro: Girlfriend
82. Teacher: hun how
t:n
83. Taro: how=
t:n t:n
84. Teacher: =<did you get a girlfriend>
85. Taro: *itsu getto shitaka tte?* (.) [ah:::]
'When did I get a girlfriend? Uhmm.'
86. Teacher: [how]
87. Taro: how ***ka*** °how ***tte***° ((looks at Shin))
'Oh how, how'
88. Shin: °how how how°
89. Taro: °how ***tte nani***°
'What does how mean?'
90. Shin: °how ***ttenee*** how ***dayo douyatte***°
'How means how. ***douyatte*** {in Japanese}'
91. Taro: oh (.) ano::*u sono:: nomi* drinking *de*
'Well, uhm, {we met when we went} drinking.'

In lines 82 and 84, the teacher repeats her question at a slower speed. However, Taro fails to respond to the teacher's question correctly (line 85), and the teacher utters "how" again in line 86. Taro then looks at Shin (line 87) and asks him for the meaning of "how" in line 89. In line 90, Shin tells Taro the meaning in Japanese and finally Taro is able to answer the teacher's question. In the next example, the teacher switches into Japanese after she has repeated the TL utterances a few times.

Example 13

((The teacher tells Taro to read one of his slips and he begins to read.))

130. Taro: ((reading)) I'm starting to look for a job. (2.0) what kind
(1.0) ((Taro grins and tilts his head))

131. Teacher: that's ((points to Taro's slip))
132. Taro: ((clearing his throat))
t:n t:n
133. Teacher: what is the (.) that's A. (.) *un sorega* A?
'Is that A?'
134. Taro: *uun* B
'No, B.'

After reading one of his slips, Taro grins and tilts his head. In line 131 the teacher points to the slip of paper Taro just read and asks which slip of paper it is. However, Taro fails to respond and just clears his throat (line 132). The teacher then repeats the question in the TL twice (line 133). However, Taro still fails to respond and just gives short nods. Finally, the teacher switches into Japanese. This CS is followed by Taro's response in line 134. These examples show that, as indicated in Figure 1, when the teacher took Path B (repetition or modification of the TL input), the students' negative responsiveness continued, and the flow of interaction did not resume until the teacher or one of the students switched into the L1.

To be sure, some readers might wonder whether the L1 use by the students triggers the teacher's CS; however, an analysis of the entire transcript shows that while 50.3% of the students' talk was in the L1, the teacher used the L1 in only 18.47% of her talk. Moreover, only 30.77% (12 times) of the students' talk directed to the teacher in the L1 (a total of 37 times) resulted in the teacher's use of L1. These findings suggest that the teacher did not regularly switch to the L1 after the students used the L1.

In summary, when the students showed negative responsiveness caused by their lack of comprehension, the teacher either switched into Japanese or used repetition or modification of the TL input. When the teacher switched into Japanese, the students reacted in a timely manner, and the flow of interaction could be resumed. On the other hand, when the teacher repeated or modified her previous TL utterances, the students' negative responsiveness continued. When this happened, the teacher or one of the students then used the L1, which resulted in the resumption of the flow of interaction.

Conclusion

This paper investigated three research questions regarding teacher CS in an EFL classroom in Japan: 1) What functions does L1 use or CS serve in teacher talk; 2) In what discourse context does CS occur; and 3) What is the effect of CS?

It was shown that the teacher in the present study used CS when explaining prior TL utterances, giving instructions, defining unknown words, and providing positive and negative feedback. The study also indicates that regardless of the nature of the specific discourse function performed, teacher CS into the L1 was always in response to the students' behavior, either their positive achievement (two instances) or their negative responsiveness (28 instances). The main interactional consequence was that when the teacher switched into Japanese in response to students' negative responsiveness, the flow of interaction was restored. Thus the teacher's use of CS into the L1 affected the interaction by either fortifying it (after a positive achievement) or restoring it (after negative responsiveness).

The chief pedagogical implication of this result is that in EFL classes with students whose proficiency in the TL and motivation are low, CS into the L1 may allow the teacher to enhance the flow of interaction in the TL.

Acknowledgments

The author would like to thank Dr. Noël Houck and the anonymous JALT reviewers for their valuable suggestions and encouragement.

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Notes

1. According to Fotos (1995), when CS research first began in the 1950s CS was regarded as undesirable behavior on the part of people who could not speak fluently in the L2. For example, Weinreich (1953) claims that one's transition from one language to the other within a single sentence or on a given occasion is not the behavior of an ideal bilingual. Labov (1971, as cited in Gumperz, 1982) calls CS "idiosyntactic behavior" (p. 70). In fact, Dabène and Billiez (1986) note that some educators still view multilingual competence in immigrant children negatively–probably because they believe that multilingual competence impedes the success of target language acquisition.
2. However, current research also shows that some CS, especially CS among low-proficiency L2 speakers, is indeed a strategy to compensate for communication problems (see Færch & Kasper, 1983; Poulisse, 1997; Wagner & Firth, 1997).
3. Myers-Scotton's (1993a) Matrix Language-Frame model provides an explanation for the frequent CS of nouns. For a detailed discussion on this point, see Myers-Scotton (1993a, pp. 493).
4. In her Markedness Model, Myers-Scotton (1993c) suggests two alternative types of CS: "unmarked" and "marked." For further discussion, see Myers-Scotton (1993c).
5. According to Merritt et al. (1992), although there are more than 30 mother tongues in Kenya, most of these languages have little, if anything, in writ-

ten form.

6. The STEP third level is usually considered to be equivalent to a TOEFL score of around 400.
7. The "strip story" activity was originally introduced by Gibbon (as cited in Nation, 1995). In the present study, the teacher cut up the dialogue the students had studied in the previous lesson into four pieces so that each student could have two pieces. The dialogue is one between a man and a woman, and each piece contains one turn by the man and one turn by the woman. The students had to put their pieces together to form the complete dialogue.
8. The teacher also used English utterances for feedback, such as "O.K.," "mhm," "yes," "yeah," and "right," throughout the lesson. These and the CS backchanneling utterances were categorized according to Sinclair and Coulthard's (1975), various classes of feedback acts: *evaluate, marker, acknowledge, reply,* or *accept* acts. It was found that the teacher used *evaluate* acts, which are characterized by a high falling tone that shows strong agreement, only for two CS responses. Other instances were categorized as *marker, acknowledge, reply* or *accept* acts. In this paper, only the two *evaluate* acts, both of which are positive, are regarded as "positive feedback."
9. Although Bilmes (1997) is talking about conversation, a different speech event from classroom interaction, interaction in a class between a teacher and only two students can be much like conversation.
10. In their analysis of interviews between counselors and students at a junior college Erickson and Shultz (1982) have shown that knowing *when* to do or say something (in a timely manner) is as fundamental as knowing *what* to do or say in face-to-face interaction. According to these authors, regularity in timing, expressed at the level of speech prosody and kinesic prosody, is essential to the success of interaction.

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(Received June 8, 1998; revised February 26, 1999)

Appendix
Transcription Conventions

[ ]	overlapping talk
=	latched utterances
(0.0)	timed pause (in seconds)
(.)	a short pause
co:lon	extension of the sound or syllable
co::lon	a more prolonged stretch
.	falling intonation (final)
,	continuing intonation (non-final)
?	rising intonation (final)
CAPITAL	emphasis
° °	passage of talk that is quieter than surrounding talk
< >	passage of talk that is slower than surrounding talk
> <	passage of talk that is faster than surrounding talk.
hh	audible aspirations
•hh	audible inhalations
(hh)	laughter within a word
(( ))	comment by the transcriber
( )	problematic hearing that the transcriber is not certain about
' '	idiomatic translation of Japanese utterances
{ }	words or phrases which are not explicitly stated in the Japanese versions.

Effects of Teaching Metaknowledge and Journal Writing on Japanese University Students' EFL Writing

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Our previous research has identified five variables which influence L2 writing ability (Sasaki & Hirose, 1996) in Japanese university English students. This study investigates the teachability of two of these variables, L2 metaknowledge and L2 writing experience, for English writing classes. Metaknowledge of English expository writing was taught to one group of students (*n* = 43), whereas a journal writing assignment was added to the metaknowledge instruction for the other group of students (*n* = 40). The effects of these two types of instruction on the students' subsequent writing were examined. Both groups significantly improved their metaknowledge, but the metaknowledge-instruction-only group did not improve their L2 writing significantly. In contrast, the group that received both metaknowledge instruction and the journal writing assignment significantly improved the mechanics of their L2 writing.

本研究は、横断的研究 (Sasaki & Hirose, 1996) で抽出された日本人英語学習者の英作文力の説明要因の教育効果を、縦断的に検証するものである。五つの説明要因のうち、英語説明文に関するメタ知識と規則的に英作文を書く経験の２要因をとりあげ、英作文力に及ぼす教育効果を測定した。大学１年生の１グループには１学期間(12週間)メタ知識を教え、別のグループには同じメタ知識教授に加えて、１学期間定期的にできるだけ多量の英文を書かせる指導を行った。指導後、両グループとも明示的なメタ知識は増えたが、指導前後に学生が書いた英作文を比較した結果、英文を書いたグループのみに作文のmechanics の点で向上がみられた。最後に、これらの結果を基に、今後の英作文指導とライティング研究に与える示唆及び課題について考察した。

Many studies have investigated variables which explain second language (L2) writing ability (e.g., Cumming, 1989; Raimes, 1987). Pedagogical application of the results of these studies should incorporate these explanatory variables into L2 writing instruction and, through longitudinal studies, subsequent research should examine the effects of this instruction on students' writing. Such longitudinal studies can then complement cross-sectional studies of L2 writing ability.

JALT Journal, Vol. 22, No. 1, May, 2000

Sasaki and Hirose (1996) have identified the following five factors as explanatory variables for Japanese university students' expository writing in English as a Foreign Language (EFL): (a) L2 proficiency; (b) first language (L1) writing ability; (c) L2 metaknowledge; (d) L2 writing experience; and (e) the use of good writers' writing strategies. Because the development of L2 proficiency in such areas as structure, vocabulary, listening, and L1 writing ability cannot generally be considered the main targets of L2 writing instruction, pedagogical implications arise mainly from the last three factors, which are directly connected to L2 writing. Among these three, the present study will focus on the factors of L2 metaknowledge and L2 writing experience and will investigate their teachability for Japanese university EFL students.

Metaknowledge Instruction

In this study metaknowledge of L2 writing is operationally defined as what is expected of paragraph-level expository writing in the target language. Because metaknowledge about L2 writing was found to have a significant influence on the quality of Japanese students' L2 writing (Sasaki & Hirose, 1996), deliberately teaching it may therefore assist students in developing their L2 writing ability. Metaknowledge instruction consists of explicitly teaching paragraph elements such as the topic sentence, the body, and concluding sentence, and the types of organizational patterns (comparison and contrast, cause and effect, etc.). Such instruction fits well with the "current-traditional rhetoric approach," combining the "current-traditional paradigm" from L1 English composition instruction with contrastive rhetoric (see Silva, 1990, for details). Although the "current-traditional rhetoric approach" has been criticized for its strong focus on form, discouraging creative writing (Silva, 1990), it can be helpful to those students who do not have much knowledge about English paragraph structure. As Raimes (1983) points out, "even if students organize their ideas well in their first language, they still need to see, analyze, and practice the particularly 'English' features of a piece of writing" (p. 8). Thus, such an approach should be especially helpful for Japanese students, who are reported to use non-English organizational patterns when they write in English (Kobayashi, 1984). Although metaknowledge instruction for paragraph-level writing is presented in some composition textbooks (e.g., Hashiuchi, 1995), little empirical research has examined its effects on Japanese students' English writing.

English Journal Writing

In previous research regular free writing practice has been found to be a major factor distinguishing "good" EFL writers from "weak" writers (Sasaki & Hirose, 1996). Therefore it may be helpful to implement "journal writing" (JW) in EFL writing classes. JW has become an integral part of many English as a Second Language (ESL) composition courses in the U.S. (Spack & Sadow, 1983) and is beginning to have a place in EFL writing courses in Japan as well (e.g., Casanave, 1993). However, most Japanese university students lack experience writing extensively in English. In junior and senior high school EFL classes L2 writing was mostly limited to translating sentences into English, and sentence-level grammatical accuracy was the major focus prior to university entrance (JACET Kansai Chapter Writing Teaching Group, 1995). Japanese university students, therefore, should be encouraged to write freely without much concern for accuracy in order to promote writing fluency.

Positive effects of JW instruction for Japanese university students have been noted by several researchers. Because students are writing in a non-threatening environment, they often report that they feel low anxiety and become comfortable writing extensively in their L2 (Kresovich, 1988). Additional studies suggest that JW improves writing quantity and quality. Ross, Shortreed, and Robb (1988) reported the development of fluency (measured by the number of T-units and words), especially in narrative compositions, over a one-year writing course. However, the effects of JW on writing quality have not been fully examined and mixed results have been reported. For example, Casanave (1994) noted conflicting results during a one-and-a-half year JW experience. Two thirds of her Japanese university EFL students improved their writing, but not all students produced longer, more complex sentences or more accurate language use. Thus, the effects of JW on quality should be investigated more fully.

JW is an individual student activity and is not considered a major constituent of a writing course. According to McCornick (1993), JW is used "as a supplementary exercise, not as the main activity in any language course" (p. 17) in a large Japanese university (see also Ross et al., 1988). These points justify a comparative study between students' writing samples from a writing course which incorporates JW and those from a similar course without a JW component, as Spack and Sadow (1983) have advocated.

The Present Study

We conducted the present study to investigate whether explicit instruction on two of the variables shown to influence Japanese university students' EFL writing (metaknowledge and regular writing experience) can improve students' L2 expository writing over one semester.[1] We compared instruction of only metaknowledge to instruction on metaknowledge combined with JW. We were not able to have a JW-only group as a control group because it was not possible to require the students to do JW regularly in non-composition courses.[2]

Research Questions

The present study explores three research questions:

1. Does formal instruction of metaknowledge have an effect on the development of students' L2 expository writing ability?
2. Does metaknowledge instruction combined with journal writing experience have an effect on the development of students' L2 expository writing ability?
3. Does metaknowledge instruction combined with journal writing experience have a greater effect on the development of students' L2 expository writing ability than metaknowledge-only instruction?

These three questions have the same follow-up question: If so, what aspect(s) of L2 writing show improvement on the basis of such instruction/experience?

Method

Participants

A total of 83 Japanese university freshmen (20 men and 63 women) majoring in British and American Studies participated in the present study. Their average age was 18.3 years and they had studied English for an average of 6.4 years, mainly through controlled formal English education in Japan. The participants were students in four intact English writing classes at two universities.[3] They were assigned to two groups, Groups 1 and 2, and were given the following instruction (see the *Content of Instruction* for details):

> Group 1 ($n = 43$; 11 men and 32 women): Metaknowledge instruction only
>
> Group 2 ($n = 40$; 9 men and 31 women): Metaknowledge instruction plus journal writing assignments

The two groups were comparable in many ways. First, they were similar in their instructional/personal backgrounds.[4] The results of chi-square analyses of responses to a questionnaire (for details of this questionnaire, see Sasaki & Hirose, 1996) eliciting their instructional/personal writing backgrounds and their attitudes toward L1 and L2 writing revealed no significant differences between the two groups. In addition, they shared similar backgrounds in terms of L1/L2 writing instruction, and in the type and amount of L1/L2 writing. For example, the great majority of students (95.3% of Group 1 and 97.5% of Group 2) had never learned "organizing a paragraph centered on one main idea" or "developing a paragraph so that the readers can follow it easily" (95.3% and 95%, respectively).

The two groups did not differ significantly in their attitude to either L1 or L2 writing. For example, in their responses to the question item "Do you like writing in L2?" 34.9% of Group 1 chose "yes," and 62.8% "neither like nor dislike it." Similarly, 25% of Group 2 chose "yes" and 67.5% "neither like nor dislike it." In other words, neither group of students had a negative attitude to L2 writing; only a few students (2.3% of Group 1 and 7.5% of Group 2) answered they did not like L2 writing. Their responses to the question whether they liked L1 writing showed a similar tendency.

Furthermore, the two groups were similar in terms of their English language proficiency. They took the Structure section of the Comprehensive English Language Test for Learners of English (CELT) (Form A; Harris & Palmer, 1986) and the Test of English as a Foreign language (TOEFL), and their English proficiency level was mostly intermediate [CELT Structure M (SD): Group 1 = 71.2 (13.2); Group 2 = 70.8 (14.1); TOEFL M (SD): Group 1 = 446.8 (47.7); Group 2 = 440.5 (66.0)]. The results of t-tests showed that the two groups' test scores were not significantly different (CELT Structure: $t = 0.12$, $df = 81$, $p = 0.9$; TOEFL: $t = 0.5$, $df = 81$, $p = 0.62$).[5]

Finally, the two groups were similar in their L2 writing ability and metaknowledge about English expository writing. They wrote English compositions and took a metaknowledge test at the beginning of the writing courses (see the *Data* section below). The t-test results for scores on the English compositions and metaknowledge tests showed no significant differences between the two groups (English composition: $t = 0.84$, $df = 81$, $p = 0.4$; metaknowledge: $t = -0.51$, $df = 81$, $p = 0.61$; see Tables 3 and 4 for means and standard deviations).

Content of Instruction

All participants were given instruction on metaknowledge of English expository writing in their English writing classes. The classes met once a week for 90 minutes over a 12-week semester of the 1994 academic year.[6] The two groups used the same textbook (Jimbo & Murto, 1990), in which each chapter deals with one idea related to paragraph organization, such as the topic sentence. In every chapter, the book first presents a model paragraph to illustrate the target organizational pattern (e.g., time order, cause and effect, and classification) and then provides practice in analyzing other paragraphs. The textbook is written in English, including the explanation section. Students in Groups 1 and 2 spent in-class time in the same way with the textbook, and all activities were centered around the analysis of paragraphs based on the readings. When responding to exercises provided in the book, both groups of students underlined the topic sentence of the paragraphs they read. However, the metaknowledge instruction did not include practice producing topic sentences or writing original paragraphs.

In addition to studying paragraph organization, the students in Group 2 were assigned to write English journals regularly (at least four days a week) outside the class. Having been given such instructions as "Spend no less than 15 minutes when writing," "Try to write as much as you can about anything," and "Do not worry too much about spelling and grammar," the Group 2 students accumulated JW experience on a regular basis for 12 weeks. They were not instructed specifically to apply the learned metaknowledge to JW. Every week they counted the number of lines written per week and chose one day's entry for a teacher or a classmate to read and write questions and/or comments on the entry. They then spent approximately 5 to 10 minutes of the class time reading and giving written feedback to each other. This in-class activity was intended to raise the students' sense of an audience when they did JW. No correction was made of anything the students wrote. Students were told that only the amount of writing would be taken into consideration for their grades. On average, the Group 2 students wrote 487.2 words every week, with a range from 154.7 to 728.7. In contrast, the students in Group 1 were not asked to write journals. Therefore, the main difference between the two types of instruction was that JW required work outside of class for Group 2.

Data

Pre- and Post-compositions

All participants wrote a 30-minute English composition at the beginning and at the end of the course. At the beginning the two groups were given the following L1 prompt to write about:

> There has been a heated discussion about the issue of "women and work" in the readers' column in an English newspaper. Some people think that women should continue to work even after they get married, whereas others believe they should stay at home and take care of their families after marriage. Now the editor of the newspaper is calling for the readers' opinions. Suppose you are writing for the readers' opinion column. Take one of the positions described above, and write your opinion.

This task was the same as that used in our previous research (Sasaki & Hirose, 1996). At the end of the composition course, both groups wrote a second English composition on the following L1 prompt:

> There has been a heated discussion about the issue of "university students and part-time jobs" in the readers' column in an English newspaper. Some people think that students should not have part-time jobs, whereas others believe they should work part-time. Now the editor of the newspaper is calling for the readers' opinions. Suppose you are writing for the readers' opinion column. Take one of the positions described above, and write your opinion.

For the pre- and post-compositions, we chose different topics to avoid possible influences of participants' thinking about the first topic over time. We considered that the two topics were familiar to the students (i.e., topics concerning their mothers and themselves respectively), and comparable in difficulty. We did not inform the participants about the topic beforehand for either task and they were not allowed to use a dictionary. By comparing the two compositions, we were able to examine the teaching effects of the two types of instruction.

Each of the two researchers scored the pre- and post-compositions, according to Jacobs, Zinkgraf, Wormuth, Hartfiel, and Hughey's (1981) ESL Composition Profile. Ratings were assigned for the five criteria of content, organization, language use, vocabulary, and mechanics.[7] Each participant's composition score was the sum of the two researchers' scores, with a possible range from 68 to 200 points. (See Appendix 1 for sample pre- and post-compositions by the same writer.)

Test of Metaknowledge of English Expository Writing

Before and after the participants received the instruction, we also tested their knowledge of such notions as coherence, unity, topic sentence, and organization of English expository writing. As had been done previously (Sasaki & Hirose, 1996), the test was developed as a criterion-referenced measure with its content centered on the course objectives of the English writing courses in which the data were collected. The major purpose for developing the test was to measure the students' knowledge of the target content area (i.e., their metaknowledge of English expository writing), not to measure their ability to produce texts. The test was given in Japanese and was composed of 12 items divided into the following three sections: (a) reading several statements about the concepts of coherence, topic sentence, and conclusion, and selecting the most appropriate one to describe English expository writing (10 items); (b) choosing the better English paragraph from two alternatives (1 item); and (c) choosing the best of three alternative paragraphs (1 item) (see Appendix 2 for sample test items).[8]

Only the compositions from students who attended both data-collecting sessions were used for the present analyses. This resulted in six students not being included and a total number of 83 participants.

Reliability

We calculated inter-rater reliability (the Pearson correlation coefficient) for the five subscores and total scores of the pre- and post-English compositions (see Table 1). For both the pre- and post-metaknowledge tests, calculating any internal consistency estimates would not be appropriate because they were criterion-referenced (see Sasaki & Hirose, 1996). Therefore, we obtained the difference index (DI), one of the recommended reliability estimates for a criterion-referenced test (CRT), for each item. The DI shows "the degree to which a CRT item is distinguishing between the students who know the material or have the skill (sometimes called masters) and those who do not (termed nonmasters)" (Brown, 1989, p. 72). Following Brown (1989), we considered items acceptable which had a DI value of higher than 0.10.

Data Analysis

For Research Questions 1 and 2, we compared the pre- and post-compositions (in terms of the five subscores and total scores) and the pre- and post-metaknowledge test scores within each group. We tested their differences for significance using paired *t*-tests. For Research Question 3, we compared the two groups' post-compositions. We conducted *t*-tests to check for statistically significant differences between the two groups' writing. Because we employed multiple *t*-tests, we made a Bonferroni adjustment to avoid inflated Type I errors, errors that occur when a true null hypothesis is rejected. (See Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996, for an explanation of the Bonferroni adjustment.) Because we made 20 comparisons in all, we divided the alpha level of 0.05 for the study by the number of comparisons (i.e., 0.05/20), and accepted only those *t*-tests that were below the 0.0025 level as significant.

Results and Discussion

Reliability

Table 1 presents inter-rater reliability estimates for the five criteria of content, organization, language use, vocabulary, mechanics, and total scores for the pre- and post-course compositions. Reliability estimates for the five variables were generally high except for mechanics. Mechanics had relatively low reliability (0.57-0.67) because the full score was small (10) and did not show enough variation among the students (see Tables 3 and 4 for the small *SD*s for mechanics).

The DI values for all metaknowledge test items except one were acceptably high for both groups (see Table 2), indicating that the test was reliable as a CRT. The small DI values of Item 11 for both groups suggest that this item measured a construct that had already been mastered by the students before the instruction began (see Q11 in Appendix 2). This item thus should be removed when the test is revised in the future.

Table 1: Inter-rater Reliability Estimates for 12 Variables

Variable	Group 1 (*n* = 43)	Group 2 (*n* = 40)
Pre-comp. Total	0.87	0.91
Pre-comp. Content	0.87	0.91
Pre-comp. Organization	0.81	0.69
Pre-comp. Vocabulary	0.79	0.75
Pre-comp. Language Use	0.72	0.77
Pre-comp. Mechanics	0.57	0.59
Post-comp. Total	0.96	0.91
Post-comp. Content	0.91	0.80
Post-comp. Organization	0.90	0.74
Post-comp. Vocabulary	0.80	0.75
Post-comp. Language Use	0.86	0.80
Post-comp. Mechanics	0.67	0.65

Research Question 1

Research Question 1 was concerned with the development of Group 1 students' L2 writing ability. The results of paired *t*-tests for pre- and post-English composition subscores and total scores and for pre- and post-metaknowledge scores in Group 1 demonstrated that there was a significant gain in metaknowledge ($t = -13.46$, $p < 0.0025$) (see Table 3).

Table 2: Dif ce Indices for the Metaknowledge Test

Item	Group 1	Group 2
1	0.58	0.55
2	0.44	0.35
3	0.37	0.45
4	0.32	0.37
5	0.24	0.17
6	0.47	0.27
7	0.67	0.52
8	0.33	0.37
9	0.19	0.28
10	0.47	0.53
11	0.02	0.00
12	0.34	0.33

Difference Index (DI) = The item difficulty (the proportion of participants who answered a given item correctly) for the Post-Metaknowledge Test minus the item difficulty for the Pre-Metaknowledge Test

However, there was no significant gain in any of the five categories of composition evaluation: content ($t = 1.27$, $p = 0.21$), organization ($t = 0.43$, $p = 0.67$), vocabulary ($t = 0.40$, $p = 0.70$), language use ($t = 0.00$, $p = 1.00$), mechanics ($t = -2.75$, $p = 0.009$), or total composition score ($t = 0.34$, $p = 0.73$). After the instruction, students in Group 1 improved in terms of metaknowledge of English expository writing. It turned out, however, that their improved metaknowledge did not help their actual writing in any of the five criteria (content, organization, language use, vocabulary, and mechanics) examined. Although the content of metaknowledge instruction was related to organizational patterns in English paragraphs, it seems that learned metaknowledge did not translate into the ability to use that knowledge in organizing the text during actual writing (see the section below).

In summary, teaching metaknowledge solely by analyzing and studying model paragraphs did not improve students' writing ability. Instruction using models alone proved insufficient to improve students' L2 writing. L1 studies as well (see Smagorinsky, 1991) suggest that instruction solely through models does not improve students' writing processes. In order for metaknowledge instruction to be effective, we may need a longer time than one semester, or may need to combine it with other kinds of instruction. We now turn to the combination of metaknowledge and JW in Research Question 2.

Table 3: Pre- and Post-English Composition and Metaknowledge Scores for Group 1

Measure (total possible)	Pre-composition *M*	Pre-composition *SD*	Post-composition *M*	Post-composition *SD*	*t*
Composition Total (200)	142.0	18.8	141.3	17.7	0.34
Content (60)	45.6	5.4	45.0	5.4	1.27
Organization (40)	29.2	4.6	28.9	4.0	0.43
Vocabulary (40)	27.9	3.8	27.7	3.9	0.40
Language Use (50)	31.3	5.2	31.3	5.0	0.00
Mechanics (10)	8.0	0.96	8.5	1.18	-2.75
Metaknowledge (12)	6.70	2.25	11.14	0.97	-13.46*

$df = 42$, $^*p < .0025$

Research Question 2

Research Question 2 was related to the development of Group 2 students' L2 writing ability. Results of paired *t*-tests for pre- and post-composition subscores and total scores, and for pre- and post-metaknowledge test scores in Group 2 showed that there were significant gains in metaknowledge ($t = -10.33$, $p < 0.0025$) and also mechanics ($t = -3.66$, $p < 0.0025$) (see Table 4). Although the latter result should be treated with some caution because of the low reliability estimates for mechanics (recall Table 1), it still shows one aspect of the improvement that Group 2 students made on their post-composition. Mechanics was the only aspect of their post-compositions which improved statistically. Unlike the case of metaknowledge-only instruction, therefore, metaknowledge instruction combined with JW helped Group 2 students improve the spelling, capitalization, punctuation, paragraphing, and handwriting, criteria included in Jacobs et al.'s (1981) mechanics. This improvement may have been derived from the metaknowledge instruction which included reading paragraphs, but was more likely from actual writing practice.

On the other hand, although some evidence of improvement was seen, significant differences were not found in the four criteria of content ($t = -0.90$, $p = 0.37$), organization ($t = 0.59$, $p = 0.56$), vocabulary ($t = -2.74$, $p = 0.009$), language use ($t = -2.50$, $p = 0.017$), or on total composition score ($t = -2.27$, $p = 0.029$), just as in the case of Group 1.

Regarding content, the nonsignificant result is not a matter for concern because the topics for the pre- and post-compositions were different, and one of the ESL Composition Profile criteria for content is how much knowledge is presented about the assigned topic (Jacobs et al.,

Table 4: Pre- and Post-English Composition and Metaknowledge Scores for Group 2

Measure (total possible)	Pre-composition *M*	*SD*	Post-composition *M*	*SD*	*t*
Composition Total (200)	138.6	17.3	143.4	17.3	-2.27
Content (60)	45.1	6.0	45.7	5.2	-0.90
Organization (40)	28.6	4.2	28.9	3.8	-0.59
Vocabulary (40)	27.0	3.7	28.4	3.8	-2.74
Language Use (50)	30.4	4.0	32.0	4.6	-2.50
Mechanics (10)	7.7	0.96	8.5	1.2	-3.66*
Metaknowledge (12)	6.95	2.28	11.18	0.98	-10.33*

df = 39, **p* < .0025

1981, p. 92). The students might have had a similar degree of knowledge about the two topics. In contrast, the nonsignificant result concerning organization does necessitate discussion. Gained metaknowledge again was not reflected in students' actual writing in terms of organization. This is hardly surprising because what the students practiced through JW was mainly expressive or narrative writing, not expository writing. They wrote mostly about themselves; for example, what they did, thought of, or felt on that day. Writing about oneself in terms of feelings and personal experience is not an alien concept for Japanese students because they have done that in their L1 (Murai, 1990). Expressive writing in L1 is quite prevalent in Japan, especially at the elementary school level (e.g., Kokugo Kyoiku Kenkyusho, 1988). The participants probably did not find it difficult to adapt themselves to writing L2 journals, just like Liebman's (1992) Japanese ESL students at a U.S. university. Such free writing, however, does not require much organization because students can write whatever comes to their mind without worrying about form (e.g., grammar, spelling) or bothering to organize their thoughts (Leki, 1985). Thus, the knowledge of English organizational patterns students gained through metaknowledge instruction was unlikely to be used or transferred when they did JW.

It may also be the case that, given a 30-minute time limit, neither Group 1 nor Group 2 students could make use of their learned metaknowledge during actual writing. Without the time constraint, they might have been able to use metaknowledge to produce writing with better organization. Comparing pre- and post-essays, Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987) found that the time allotment (30 minutes) "obviously did not allow the extended plan-development that experimental-group students had been learning to do, but at which they had not yet developed much facility" (p. 313). Thus, in order to examine whether students are hindered from using metaknowledge under time pressure, we should provide time-free writing conditions to students and also compare their writing processes, as done in Bereiter and Scardamalia (1987).

The overall quality and use of vocabulary (range, word/idiom choice and usage, register, etc.) and language use (defined to include sentence construction, tense, agreement, number, etc. by Jacobs et al., 1981) were not found to be significantly improved either. Although a 12-week JW experience with explicit metaknowledge instruction was not sufficient to significantly improve linguistic skills involving lexical and syntactic control in English writing, it appears to have had some influence (i.e., Group 2 students' post-composition scores on vocabulary and language use were higher than their pre-composition scores). The results of the present study suggest that skills regarding spelling, punctuation, or paragraphing are learned early compared with other skills concerning vocabulary, language use, and organization. It is not certain from our results whether or not these students simply need more writing experience to improve the latter skills. Casanave's (1993) EFL Japanese students self-reported that three semesters of JW developed their organizational skills along with other skills.

In summary, combination of metaknowledge instruction and JW contributed to improving the students' writing in terms of mechanics. The results may suggest that this combination of instruction is promising for L2 writing instruction, especially when the allowed course length is short. It is difficult, however, to determine conclusively which component, metaknowledge instruction or JW experience, was more helpful in improving students' mechanics. We turn to this issue in Research Question 3.

Research Question 3

Research Question 3 was related to the comparison between Groups 1 and 2. In the English compositions written before the instruction, there were no significant differences between the two groups (recall the *Participants* section), although the metaknowledge-instruction-only group's mean pre-composition score was higher than that of the metaknowledge plus JW group (142.0 vs. 138.6). In order to determine which of the two instruction types was more effective, a between-group comparison was made on the post-composition scores. The *t*-test results showed no significant difference between Group 1 and 2 on post-composition scores in any aspect examined (content [t = -0.64, p = 0.53], organization [t = 0.09, p = 0.93], vocabulary [t = -0.78, p = 0.44], language use [t = -0.71, p = 0.48], mechanics [t = -0.04, p = 0.97], total composition score [$t = -0.49, p = 0.62$]). Thus, we cannot claim at this point that either of the two types of instruction had a greater effect on students' writing.

Although the mean post-composition score for Group 2 was higher than that of Group 1, the difference was not statistically significant. Recall that one aspect of the composition scores for Group 2, mechanics, significantly improved after the instruction (Table 4), whereas the composition scores for Group 1 did not (Table 3). However, the improvement by Group 2 was not large enough for the group's mean post-composition score to be significantly better than that of Group 1, probably because the mean pre-composition score of Group 1 was substantially (but not significantly) higher than that of Group 2 before the instruction began.

The results, however, do not downgrade the writing instruction Group 2 received. Only one semester of metaknowledge plus JW instruction may not be long enough to be significantly more effective than metaknowledge-only-instruction in promoting writing gains. Reporting on positive effects of JW on Japanese university students' L2 writing, McCornick (1993) claims that "time is the crucial condition" (p. 10), and further suggests that most students would require JW for three semesters to improve their writing. Given an appropriate length of time, as Spack and Sadow (1983) suggest, expressive writing experience might eventually lead students to be better expository writers. Organization might gradually improve if students keep up JW longer than a semester. Alternatively, not only explicit metaknowledge instruction but also experience such as more controlled paragraph or essay writing may be necessary for students to be able to use learned metaknowledge to improve their expository writing.

Suggesting that personal writing helps to develop academic writing skills, Mlynarczyk (1991) recommends that ESL writing instruction should start with personal writing. EFL students should benefit from such personal writing experience too.

Conclusion

As a follow-up study to the previous cross-sectional study on the factors contributing to L2 writing ability (Sasaki & Hirose, 1996), the present longitudinal study investigated the effects of teaching two variables, metaknowledge and writing experience (operationalized as JW) over a semester. The results revealed that (a) metaknowledge instruction alone was insufficient to help students improve their writing, (b) metaknowledge instruction combined with JW improved EFL Japanese university students' facility in mechanics, and (c) the teaching effects of metaknowledge combined with JW were not great enough to make a significant difference in writing ability as opposed to those of metaknowledge-only instruction. The second finding seems the most encouraging and suggestive. The other two, however, do not imply that metaknowledge or JW is ineffective in improving EFL students' L2 writing. In actuality, both should be incorporated in EFL writing instruction, not only at university level but also at secondary school level, and in combination with other writing activities such as more structured paragraphs/essays/papers. As pointed out by Raimes (1991), "instructional balance" is the key to the teaching of writing.

Although the results of the present study provide some pedagogical implications for EFL writing instruction, the relatively small sample size limits generalizability, and thus, these findings should be confirmed with a larger sample. It is also important to confirm the results with different groups of students, such as those with higher or lower English proficiency levels. Despite the limitations, the present study indicates directions for further research.

First, to ascertain the effects of metaknowledge instruction and JW experience on L2 students' writing, we should conduct longitudinal studies for a period longer than one semester, for example, over a one-, two-, three-, or four-year period. Such follow-up studies may require diverse means to measure teaching effects on students' L2 writing, as suggested by Casanave (1994). Improvement should therefore be measured in various ways, not solely by numerical indices of writing quality. For example, it should be determined whether and how students' L2 writing processes are influenced by such instruction (see Smagorinsky, 1991, for L1 research).

Second, the present study suggests that the effects of instruction vary according to the individual student. Under both types of instruction, some students improved their writing, whereas others did not (see Appendix 1 for sample compositions by one of the former group). To discover the salient characteristics of those who have improved, future studies should use observation and interviews. Such qualitative studies would complement the kind of quantitative research exemplified by the present study.

Third, the effects of teaching writing strategies such as planning and revising should also be investigated because such instruction may also influence writing processes. Based on L1 composition instruction using a list of cues which stimulated self-questioning during planning, Scardamalia, Bereiter, and Steinbach (1984) reported some reflective change in students' writing processes (see also Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987). Furthermore, Smagorinsky (1991) used protocol analysis to examine the effects of teaching brainstorming or revising strategies on the writing processes of L1 students. In contrast, few studies have been conducted on the effects of writing strategy instruction on L2 writing.

Finally, we should explore the issue of applying metaknowledge to the writing process and performance, and determine whether L2 writing skills acquired through JW are transferable/transferred to other writing, such as exposition.

Acknowledgments

We would like to thank Theresa Austin, Carol Rinnert, and the anonymous reviewers of JALT Journal *for their insightful comments and suggestions regarding this paper.*

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Notes

1. Because the writing courses were only one semester in length, we could not conduct a longer study of writing development using the two instructional treatments.
2. Some might argue that it is possible to assign JW to students in nonwriting English courses, thus allowing a control group. However, increasing the amount of work required for the students' other English courses might give students the perception that they were being overloaded with assignments. This could have a negative impact on their completion of the regular assignments for the course as well as on their completion of JW. Furthermore, the JW assignment and peer feedback activities would be difficult to implement in nonwriting English courses.
3. The authors each taught two classes: one metaknowledge-instruction-only, and one metaknowledge-instruction plus JW.
4. We examined the participants' L1 and L2 writing background using the questionnaire described in Sasaki and Hirose (1996). The questions asked what types of writing (e.g., translating individual Japanese sentences into English, writing more than one paragraph) and how much writing the participants did prior to entering their universities.
5. The internal consistency estimates calculated by Kuder-Richardson formula 20 for the CELT Structure were high for both Groups 1 and 2 (0.89 and 0.90, respectively). The reliability of the TOEFL subsections could not be calculated because the test was scored by an external organization, and the item-level performance was not given to the authors.
6. All participants were taking five other English courses (reading, speaking/listening, etc.) concurrently.
7. We used this profile because we believe that the organization component of the profile is related to metaknowledge instruction. We also believe that other categories such as vocabulary and language use are related to JW experience.

8. We used test items (a) created for our previous research (Sasaki & Hirose, 1996), whereas we based the designs of test items (b) and (c) on the coursebook (Jimbo & Murto, 1990).

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(Received November 19, 1997; revised January 12, 2000)

Appendix 1

Sample Pre- and Post-compositions* by the Same Student

Pre-composition on "women and work"

I agree to the idea that it is good for married women to get jobs. because I think if they are at home in an all day they will be losing their vitality, and they may become a boring person.

There may be some useful persons for the society in married women. It is very weistful not to let them work, this is also one of the reason I think married women had better work. I think it is important to regard everyone not as a man or a woman but a individual. Rights everyone has are equal, therefore even married women should be given rights and chances that men has.

Post-composition on "university students and part-time jobs"

I think university students had better have a part-time job. Acctually university students go to the university to study, but is there reason that they shouldn't have a part time job? Some people may say that having a part time job keeps the university student from studying, but I don't think so. I think they manage to study doing a part-time job.

There are many advantages in doing a part-time job. For example, they can get money, so they can buy books for studying or they can pay an expence of university. If they have some money they can do most of what they want to do, so they will become more active. They can also learn part of society. They know how hard it is to earn money, so they may thank for their parents who have brought up them. They may make friends, and they may have a confidence of themselves because they can do jobs which are given. They may find what they really want to do in part-time jobs.

There are much more benefits in doing a part-time job than disadvantage, so I think university students had better have a part-time job.

*Spelling and grammar errors are the student's.

Appendix 2

Excerpts of the Test of Metaknowledge of English Expository Writing *

I. Read the following statements concerning English expository writing and choose the one which matches your knowledge.**

Q1. (a) An English paragraph usually has one sentence which summarizes the whole paragraph, but the writer can write other things which are not expressed in that sentence if they are related to the main topic.
(b) An English paragraph has one sentence which summarizes the whole paragraph, and the writer has to write only those which are related to the main idea.
(c) An English paragraph does not usually have one sentence which summarizes the whole paragraph, and the writer can write whatever s/he likes.
(d) I do not know any of the above.

Q3. (a) The first part of an English paragraph is the introduction, where the writer begins with a general topic related to the main theme, and gradually moves on to the main topic in the later part.
(b) An English paragraph usually has a summarization of the main point in the first part, followed by explication and/or exemplification in the later part.
(c) An English paragraph does not have a fixed pattern.
(d) I do not know any of the above.

Q4. (a) An English paragraph is developed along such organizational patterns as time, space, cause and effect, or comparison and contrast.
(b) An English paragraph does not have fixed patterns of development, so

that the writer develops a paragraph freely as s/he wants.
(c) I do not know any of the above.

Q7. (a) The writer in English develops his/her argument freely without considering the readers much.
(b) The writer in English writes for the readers to follow his/her argument easily.
(c) I do not know any of the above.

Q9. (a) Regarding English paragraphs arguing for or against a certain opinion, the writer tends to state both positions without specifying his/her own position.
(b) In opinion-statement paragraphs in English, the writer tends to specify his/her position, either for or against, and develop arguments to support the position.
(c) In opinion-statement paragraphs in English, the writer tends to take his/her position, but does not argue strongly to support the position.
(d) I do not know any of the above.

II. Which of the following two paragraphs do you think is the better English paragraph?

Q11 (a) My best friend, Anne has lived an unusual life. Anne's father works for a company that sends him to foreign countries. Anne has lived in France, China, Australia, and Thailand. Anne can speak French, Chinese, and Thai.
(b) My best friend, Anne has lived an unusual life. Her father works for a company that sends him to foreign countries. Therefore, Anne has lived in France, China, Australia, and Thailand. She can speak French, Chinese, and Thai.
(c) I don't know which is better.

III.All the following paragraphs say the same things, but in different ways. Choose the one that you think is best organized.

Q12 (a) Opera began in Italy almost 400 years ago. It soon spread to France and other European countries. Opera is a play in which most of the words are sung, not spoken. In the mid-seventeenth century, it became a popular entertainment.
(b) In the mid-seventeenth century, opera became a popular entertainment. It began in Italy almost 400 years ago. It soon spread to France and other European countries. Opera is a play in which most of the words are sung, not spoken.
(c) An opera is a play in which most of the words are sung, not spoken. It began in Italy almost 400 years ago. Opera soon spread to France and other European countries. In the mid-seventeenth century, it became a popular entertainment.
(d) I don't know which is best.

* The test was written in Japanese, except for the English texts in Q11 and 12.

** This section contained 10 test items.

Establishing a Valid, Reliable Measure of Writing Apprehension for Japanese Students

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A large body of research deals with anxiety in foreign or second language learning. However, little research has been conducted on anxiety as it pertains to foreign or second language writing. The limited amount of research that does exist utilizes Daly and Miller's Writing Apprehension Test (DM-WAT), a questionnaire designed for first language (L1) writing students. Until recently, no attempts have been made to validate the questionnaire for a second language (L2) population. This paper reports on our attempts to validate a translated DM-WAT for Japanese students of English. A valid measure of L2 writing apprehension could identify at-risk writers, predict academic success in writing, and present benchmarks against which to measure the success of treatments designed to lower writing apprehension. Initial results seem to indicate that a translated, modified version of the DM-WAT is a valid measure of writing apprehension for Japanese junior college students of English.

外国語、もしくは第二言語学習における不安感（anxiety）については、多くの研究がなされているが、ライティングに関しては、anxiety に関する研究がほとんどない。わずかに記録されている研究は、英語を母国語にする学習者用につくられた「デイリーとミラーによるライティング不安感テスト（DM-WAT)」を使ったものである。ごく最近までこのテストを、英語を第二外国語とするグループに適用することは、試みられていなかった。

この論文では、日本人の英語学習者向けに翻訳したDM-WATの、適用の試みについて報告する。第二言語でのライティングにおいて、学習者が経験する不安感を適正に測定することにより、ライティングに問題のある学習者をさがしだし、またどうすれば優れたライティングができるかを示す。さらにはライティングの不安感をやわらげる対策をたてるにあたっての、指標を示すことができる。翻案版DM-WATを日本の短大英語学習者に試みたところ、第一段階としては適正な結果が得られた。

JALT Journal, Vol. 22, No. 1, May, 2000

Past research on anxiety in foreign or second language (L2) learning indicates that anxiety can have a negative effect on learners. Research has suggested that learners' performance (Kleinmann, 1977; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; Steinberg & Horwitz, 1986), participation (Ely, 1986), course grades (Horwitz, 1986; Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986), cognitive processing (Krashen, 1982; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994b), and motivation (Ely, 1986) can be negatively affected by anxiety. Most research on L2 anxiety has focused on classroom speaking and listening situations. However, very little attention has been paid to anxiety as it pertains to L2 writing. The research that does exist has borrowed from first language (L1) research, namely from Daly and Miller's (1975a) research on the construct they name "writing apprehension," which Daly defines as "the fear or anxiety an individual may feel about the act of composing written material" (1991, p. 3).

Daly and Miller (1975a; 1975b) developed and validated a 26-item self-report writing apprehension test (the DM-WAT) which purports to measure the degree of anxiety an individual experiences when faced with the task of writing in the L1. The DM-WAT has also been used to some extent in L2 research, but no attempts have been made to validate it for use with L2 learners, and it has only recently been translated into second language learners' L1. To our knowledge, no other measure exists to measure anxiety in L2 writing. However, if successfully developed, a valid and reliable measure of L2 writing apprehension could identify at-risk writers, predict academic success in L2 writing, and present benchmarks against which to measure treatments designed to lower writing apprehension. It could also offer a way to compare writing apprehension in learners' writing in their L1 and L2.

This study describes our attempts to validate the DM-WAT in Japanese for Japanese students of English. We will first discuss the literature on anxiety in second and foreign language learning before examining subsequent studies on both L1 and L2 writing apprehension. Finally, we will describe the process of validating the translated DM-WAT and report on its reliability.

Research on Anxiety

L2 Research on Anxiety

A large body of research has described multiple sources of language anxiety. One source of anxiety is the language learning experience itself. Horwitz et al. (1986) maintain that foreign language anxiety is a unique phenomenon, distinguishable from anxiety in other academic situations because of the uniqueness of the language learning process. The learner, fully competent in the L1, suddenly experiences a limited range of communicative choices. In a review of the literature on anxiety and language learning, MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) suggest that other factors besides anxiety, such as language aptitude and motivation, play a major role in a learner's early experiences with the foreign language (FL). In the early stages, while learners may experience anxiety, it may not necessarily be FL anxiety. MacIntyre and Gardner suggest that FL anxiety tends to appear later in the learning process as a result of attitudes developed from negative experiences with the FL. This indicates that FL anxiety is not so much inherent as attributable to the learning environment.

Learners' perceptions of their ability and expectations about how they should perform are also sources of FL anxiety. In a study of learners of French, MacIntyre, Noels, and Clement (1997) found correlations among perceived L2 competence, L2 anxiety, and actual L2 competence. Anxious students tend to underestimate their competence, whereas less anxious students tend to overestimate their competence. Horwitz et al. (1986) and Horwitz (1988) report that many learners have a preconceived idea that anything uttered in a foreign language class must be completely correct, thus making oral classroom situations quite anxiety-provoking.

Oral classroom activities in general appear to cause anxiety. Mejias, Applbaum, Applbaum, and Trotter (1991) found that having to speak in front of the class was the most anxiety-provoking situation for language learners. Similarly, Koch and Terrell (1991) found that oral presentations, skits, oral quizzes, and being asked to respond caused anxiety. Bailey (1983) suggests that competitive situations cause anxiety. In all of these situations learners are apt to compare themselves to others (Young, 1990). Hembree (1988) reports on testing situations and anxiety, suggesting that learners with higher ability have lower test anxiety whereas testing situations cause anxiety for students with lower ability. Thus there appear to be various causes for language anxiety.

A large body of literature deals with the effects anxiety can have on language learning. However, MacIntyre (1995) points out that the effects of anxiety are not always negative. Anxiety can actually be facilitative if the language learning task is not too difficult. Nonetheless, most research on language anxiety focuses on its negative effects. One major effect of anxiety is learners' negative perception of their abilities as compared to others. Price (1991) found that anxious students believe their language skills to be lower than those of other students in their class and Tobias (1986) suggested that anxious students feel "left behind" if they perceive that the language class moves too quickly for them to master the material

Research also suggests that anxiety can negatively affect cognitive processing. Krashen (1982) notes that anxiety raises a learner's "affective filter," thereby making the learner emotionally unreceptive to input in the target language. MacIntyre and Gardner (1994a) consider language anxiety in the three stages of learning proposed by Tobias (1986): Input, Processing, and Output. These researchers developed an anxiety scale to measure anxiety at each of Tobias' three stages. The subjects of their research, first-year students of French, were asked to complete nine tasks which involved listening, comprehension, reading, and repetition, after which the subjects were asked to complete the anxiety scale. The researchers concluded that what may seem to be small effects on specific language learning skills may accumulate over time and result in obvious differences between anxious and less anxious learners. Other studies indicate that anxiety negatively influences listening comprehension (Gardner, Lalonde, Moorcroft, & Evers, 1987) and that anxious students experience difficulty in acquiring and retrieving vocabulary (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989).

Finally, anxiety can negatively influence classroom behavior. One common behavior resulting from anxiety is avoidance. Anxious students tend to avoid complex grammatical constructions (Kleinmann, 1977) and difficult or personal messages in the L2 (Horwitz et al., 1986). Steinberg and Horwitz (1986) found that anxious students prefer to give concrete messages thereby avoiding interpretive messages in the L2. Anxious students also avoid volunteering answers and participating in oral classroom activities (Ely, 1986). In addition, anxiety can manifest itself in behavior that could be negatively misinterpreted by a teacher as laziness, such as coming to class unprepared, acting indifferently, missing classes, or avoiding speaking in class (Horwitz et al., 1986). Language anxiety has also been negatively correlated with course grades (Horwitz, 1986). In fact, anxious students may even over-study yet see no improvement in grades (Horwitz et al., 1986).

A recent development in L2 anxiety research examines whether anxiety is a causal factor in language learning or whether it is rather the result of differences in native language ability. In their linguistic coding deficits/differences hypothesis (LCDH), Sparks and Ganschow (1991, 1993a, 1993b, 1995; see also Ganschow, Sparks, Anderson, Javorshy, Skinner, & Patton, 1994) suggest that language aptitude, not affective variables, is the main source of individual differences in foreign language achievement. Thus, ability in one's native language is more likely to influence language learning than anxiety, attitudes, or motivation. However, MacIntyre (1995) argues that LCDH reduces the role of affective variables to that of an "unfortunate side effect" (p. 90). He points to the significant amount of research linking anxiety to problems in second language learning, and notes that the "effects of anxiety may be more complex than has been implied by Sparks and Ganschow" (p. 96).

This debate shows some of the controversy surrounding anxiety and suggests the need for additional research on the role of anxiety in language learning, particularly in the L2 setting. However, in order to conduct such research, valid and reliable anxiety measurements must be available. Anxiety in speaking and listening classroom situations has been studied using various scales designed to measure L2 anxiety, namely the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz et al. (1986), and Ely's (1986) Language Class Discomfort Scale. However, little research has been done on anxiety in writing situations, and existing research borrows heavily from Daly and Miller's (1975a) L1 research on writing apprehension.

L1 Writing Apprehension Studies

After speaking with composition teachers about the problem of students who do poorly in writing classes because of anxiety about writing, Daly and Miller (1975a) took steps to develop a valid and reliable measure of writing apprehension, the DM-WAT. They began by creating items based on then-current measurements of communication apprehension, speaking apprehension, and receiver apprehension (Heston & Paterline, 1974; McCroskey, 1970; Wheeles, 1974). Keeping valences random to avoid any directional bias, items were developed in a number of categories including,

> anxiety about writing in general, teacher evaluation of writing, peer evaluation of writing, as well as professional...evaluations. Additionally [they] sought to provide items concerning letter writing, environments for writing, writing in tests, and self-evaluation of writing (Daly & Miller, 1975a, p. 245).

Using these items, Daly and Miller developed a 63-item Likert-scale (5 possible responses) questionnaire and administered it to 164 undergraduate composition and interpersonal communication students. The results were submitted to Principal Component Analysis with orthogonal rotation. An eigenvalue of 1.0 was used to determine how many factors to initially extract. Factors with two items loading at .60 or higher and no secondary loading above .40 were retained. Initially a two-factor solution was generated, but it was seen that this was caused by item valences. In other words, positive factors loaded on one factor and negative factors loaded on the other factor. Therefore, a one-factor solution was generated. After dropping items that did not load above .57 and rerunning the factor analysis, Daly and Miller selected 26 items, all of which loaded above .60 and accounted for .46 of the variance. Next, the reliability of the instrument was tested by both split-half and test-retest methods. The split-half reliability was reported at .940, while the test-retest reliability over a week was reported at .923. Scores were found to range from a low of 26 to a high of 130. Daly and Miller's sample had a mean score of 79.28 with a standard deviation of 18.86. (See Appendix A for their questionnaire in English.)

Since the development of the DM-WAT, L1 research with this instrument has indicated that individuals with high levels of writing apprehension find writing to be a negative, even painful, experience and therefore avoid situations that require writing. Furthermore, individuals with high writing apprehension hesitate to enroll in nonrequired writing courses (Daly & Miller, 1975b). They also choose occupations (Daly & Shamo, 1976) and university majors (Daly & Shamo, 1978) with minimal writing requirements. In addition, they have low expectations for success in writing classes (Daly & Miller, 1975b; see also Buley-Meissner, 1989), and in fact perform less successfully than individuals with low writing apprehension (Powell, 1984; Frankinburger, 1991). For example, highly apprehensive students have been found to lack organizational strategies and tend to revise and edit less than those with low apprehension (Selfe, 1984; Bannister, 1982). They also produce shorter essays which are less developed in syntax and content (Beatty & Payne, 1985; Faigley, Daly, & Witte, 1981). Thus, a high level of writing apprehension places both academic and occupational restraints on an individual.

Measuring Writing Apprehension in L2

There have been few attempts to measure writing apprehension in L2 research. In two studies, Gungle and Taylor (1989) used a modified version of the DM-WAT to examine the relationship between writing apprehension and a focus on form rather than on content. The study also examined the relationships among writing apprehension and the students' willingness to take advanced writing courses, and their perceived writing requirements in their chosen majors. The modified version of the DM-WAT consisted of a 6-point rather than a 5-point Likert scale, this used to "avoid noncommittal responses" (p. 241). Gungle and Taylor also added the phrase "in English" to each statement in the DM-WAT to clarify that the statement referred only to English writing and not to writing in the students' first language. Finally, the following 3-item instrument, using an 8-point scale, was added to the bottom of the DM-WAT.

1. The English writing requirements of my major are great.
2. I would be interested in enrolling in an advanced writing class in English.

3. When I write in English, I am more concerned with how I say something than with what I say (p. 241).

Their results showed a negative correlation between writing apprehension and students' willingness to take advanced writing courses, and a negative correlation between writing apprehension and the perceived writing requirements of their majors. There was no significant correlation between writing apprehension and a focus on forms and no significant correlation between writing apprehension and attention to content.

In their second study, Gungle and Taylor (1989) changed the 3-item instrument to the following 4-item instrument, again using an 8-point scale.

1. The English writing requirements of my major are great.
2. When writing in English I am most concerned with grammar and form.
3. I would be interested in enrolling in an advanced writing class in English.
4. When writing in English I am most concerned with content and ideas (p. 243).

The second set of results did not show a significant positive correlation between writing apprehension and concern for forms, although it showed a negative correlation between writing apprehension and concern for content.

In a pilot study, Masny and Foxall (1992) modified Gungle and Taylor's WAT, using 15 items instead of 26. They used the 4-item instrument from Gungle and Taylor's second study, replacing "The English writing requirements of my major are great" with "After this English course I will 'very often,' 'often,' 'sometimes,' 'seldom,' 'never' need to write in English" (p. 12). Their study suggested that high academic achievers had lower writing apprehension than low academic achievers. Both low and high writing apprehensive students were more concerned with forms than content. High writing apprehensive students expressed an unwillingness to take more writing classes, and females appeared to be more apprehensive than males.

As mentioned, there has been little research on L2 writing apprehension to date. Furthermore most of what has been done has shortcomings. First of all, the three studies mentioned above used questionnaires written in the subjects' L2. This is true of much L2 research, but may be a shortcoming. Gungle and Taylor themselves (1989) question whether their subjects could understand the modified version of the DM-WAT. They note that some of the vocabulary used "may not be entirely clear to ESL students" (p. 245), and therefore suggest that even a modified DM-WAT might be incapable of measuring L2 students' writing apprehension. Both Johnson (1992, p. 114) and Brown (in preparation, p. 77) stress that students must understand any questionnaire being used, one way being administration in the students' L1. Of course this is easier to do in an EFL rather than in an ESL setting.

Finally, neither Gungle and Taylor nor Masny and Foxall (1992) report on the validity or reliability of their respective questionnaires. This is a problem in much L2 research and Griffee (1997) points out the importance for language research, especially if it is questionnaire-based, to provide this information. Without reliability and validity reports, there is no evidence that a questionnaire consistently measures what it sets out to measure.

It was not until quite recently that a study appeared using a translated version of the DM-WAT and reported on validity and reliability. Cheng, Horwitz, and Schallert (1999) examined the relationship between L2 classroom anxiety and L2 writing anxiety. They also examined relationships between L2 classroom anxiety and L2 writing anxiety with L2 speaking and writing achievement. They used the FLCAS and a modified second language version of the DM-WAT. Both instruments were translated into students' L1, Chinese, and then checked through back-translation. The DM-WAT was modified to suit the second language situation by adding the phrases "English" or "in English" to the original items to ensure that students reported on anxiety in L2 writing contexts. They also added two items, one pertaining to students' anxiety about making grammatical mistakes, and one pertaining to students' worry over their lack of ideas.

The internal consistency of the instrument was .94 using Cronbach's coefficient alpha. A factor analysis found three factors which accounted for 50.9% of the total variance. The factors were "Low Self-Confidence in Writing English," "Aversiveness of Writing in English," and "Evaluation Apprehension." The results of the study indicate that L2 writing anxiety and L2 classroom anxiety are, "two related yet relatively distinguishable anxiety constructs" (p. 436). Cheng et al. (1999) suggest that L2 writing anxiety is an anxiety which is specific to the particular language skill of writing, and L2 classroom anxiety is a more general type of anxiety with a strong emphasis on speaking anxiety.

Research Focus

Elsewhere (Cornwell & McKay, 1997; Cornwell & McKay, 1998) we have written on the importance writing is given at our college and the problems students face in writing. As noted, research indicates that writing anxiety can have debilitating effects on performance, participation, and self-esteem. Our goal, therefore, was to create a valid and reliable measurement of Japanese college students' L2 writing apprehension as a first step in addressing these problems.

Researchers have two choices when designing an attitude questionnaire: either design their own measure or replicate a preexisting measure (Converse & Presser, 1986; Henerson, Morris, & Fitz-Gibbon, 1987). We chose to use the DM-WAT, a preexisting measure, because it has already been used by L2 researchers. To address the problems of reliability and validity in questionnaire-based research, one of our goals was to validate the DM-WAT for Japanese junior college students.

By validating the DM-WAT questionnaire we could determine whether the construct of writing apprehension, documented to exist among native English-speaking college students for their L2, also exists among Japanese college students for writing in their L2, and if so, whether it exists in the same way. Development of an instrument which shows that L2 writing anxiety exists and can reliably measure such anxiety would be useful for both research and pedagogy.

Research Questions

The research questions of this study are:

1. Using the DM-WAT as a starting point, can a reliable and valid measure of Japanese junior college students' L2 writing apprehension be created in Japanese?
2. Can a reliable and valid measurement provide insight into the nature of L2 writing apprehension as it exists in Japanese junior college students?

Method

Participants

A total of 701 18 to 20 year-old female students majoring in English at a private junior college in Osaka, Japan, participated in this study. The subjects were 392 first-year students enrolled in composition classes and 309 second-year students enrolled in content-based discussion and writing classes. The second-year figure also includes 30 students who were repeating the class.

Materials

As researchers have noted, translating questionnaires into the students' L1 may ensure that questions aren't misunderstood due to a lack of language proficiency. Therefore, the DM-WAT was translated into Japanese[1] by a Japanese colleague (see Appendix A for the English version and Appendix B for the Japanese translation). In doing so, it was necessary to make some adjustments in wording to convey the original meaning. For example, if Item 2, "I have no fear of my writing being evaluated," were translated directly, it would consistently cause students to answer "incorrectly." In keeping with the original DM-WAT, however, a 5-point Likert scale was used with answers ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree."

Positive statements such as "I enjoy writing" and "Writing is a lot of fun" were reverse-scored following a formula suggested by Daly and Miller (1975a). In their article the formula was misprinted as "Writing Apprehension = 78 + positive scores - negative scores." (1975a, p. 246). The correct formula is:

Writing Apprehension = 78 - positive scores + negative scores.

The questionnaire was further modified by adding the phrase "in English," to make it clear that "writing" referred to writing in English (the L2), not Japanese (the L1).

Five questions were added to the end of the questionnaire. Three used a four-point Likert scale (4 = very frequently; 3 = frequently; 2 = infrequently; 1 = not at all) to inquire about the students' high school writing experience at the sentence, paragraph, and essay level, and two asked whether the students had studied abroad and, if so, for how long. These results will be reported elsewhere.

Questionnaire Administration

In order to guard against possible response bias caused by learning about the course writing requirements, the 15 first-year composition classes and 13 second-year Current Topic classes were given the questionnaire during the first week of the Japanese school year in April. The teachers administering the questionnaires were all native speakers of English.

Data Analysis

The data from the completed questionnaires was entered into a Microsoft *Excel 5.0 b* spreadsheet (1985-1996) and checked for accuracy. There were 48 students who left one or more of the 26 writing apprehension questions blank. Rather than lose all their data by eliminating them from the study, the missing answers were filled in with the mean value for that item, following the procedure described in Tabachnick and Fidell (1996). These authors write, "In the absence of all other information, the mean is the best guess about the value of a variable" (p. 63). The average number of answers that needed to be filled in for the 48 incomplete questionnaires was 2.7.

Writing apprehension scores were calculated for each student using the corrected Daly and Miller formula given earlier. The data were then imported into *SPSS* 6.1.1 (1989-1995), a statistical program. A factor analysis was run to help determine the underlying structure or construct(s) of the questionnaire, a step which is necessary to establish validity (Kline, 1997). First, Principal Component Analysis was run. When it indicated that there was more than one factor, a second analysis was run using Maximum Likelihood Factor Analysis with Direct Oblimin rotation, a type of oblique rotation.

Reliability

To determine the internal consistency of the questionnaire, the split-half method was used following the description in Hatch and Lazaraton (1991). A correlation of .78 was obtained for the half test, and using the Spearman-Brown prophecy formula, the reliability of the full questionnaire was found to be .89 (*N* = 701, *M* = 80.08, and *SD* = 12.81). In Daly and Miller's study, the mean score was 79.28 with a standard deviation of 18.86. In this study, the mean was 80.08 with a standard deviation of 12.81. Kurtosis and skewness help determine whether a distribution is normal, and here kurtosis was .235 and skewness was -.021, near-zero figures which indicate a normal distribution. See Table 1 for the descriptive statistics by year.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics for Writing Apprehension Scores: Total, First year, Second year

Statistic	Total	First Year	Second Year
Mean	80.075	80.634	79.367
S.E. Mean	.484	.605	.784
SD	12.806	11.975	13.776
Kurtosis	.235	.292	.132
Skewness	-.021	-.086	.071
Minimum	38.00	40.00	38.00
Maximum	121.00	118.00	121.00
N	701	392	309

Validity

There are three types of validity which are often discussed in the applied linguistics research literature: content validity, criterion or predictive validity, and construct validity (Brown, in preparation; Griffee, 1997; and Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991). Since this study was concerned with measuring the construct of writing apprehension using an existing L1 questionnaire (the DM-WAT) administered in Japanese, we were primarily interested in construct validity. A construct is "a theoretical label that is given to some human attribute or ability that cannot be seen or touched because it goes on in the brain" (Brown, 1988, p. 103). We chose to examine construct validity through factor analysis since this procedure can determine the underlying structure or construct(s) of a questionnaire. A second purpose of factor analysis is to reduce a large number of variables to a smaller, more manageable set. According to Royce (1963, as cited in Kline, 1997), a factor is "a construct operationally defined by its factor loadings" (p. 5).

There are many ways to conduct factor analysis (see Kline, 1997, for a detailed summary of methods and procedures). Among the decisions researchers must make when doing factor analysis are: (1) how many factors to extract; (2) how to rotate the factors to obtain a final solution; (3) which variables (questions or items) to keep; and (4) how to know that a final solution has been reached. Although there are set procedures, factor analysis is a highly subjective technique since it is dependent on the researcher's interpretation of the data.

There has been considerable debate on how factors should be extracted (e.g., Kaiser criterion/ factors greater than one versus the scree test). Kline (1997) asserts that "Cattell's Scree test is just about the best solution to selecting the correct number of factors" (p. 75). In a scree test, the eigenvalues are plotted on a graph and the number of factors are determined by seeing where the line changes slope. After extracting the factors, they are then rotated to obtain maximum parsimony. An easy way to think about rotation is to think of two factors located on a graph. By rotating the x and y axes the factors change position. Rotation helps researchers identify and interpret the solution by making high factors higher and low factors lower. There are two primary methods of rotation: orthogonal, used when the factors are not believed to be correlated, and oblique, used when there is the likelihood of the factors having some correlation. Although orthogonal and oblique rotations often yield similar results (Kline, 1997), oblique rotation is more frequently used in language research (Hatch & Lazaraton, 1991). When correlations of factors exceed .32, oblique rotation is warranted (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996, p. 674). After rotation a common method to determine the adequacy of rotation is to answer the question posed by Tabachnick and Fidell (1996, p. 674), "Do highly correlated variables tend to load on the same factor?" If they do, the rotation may be considered adequate.

After determining the number of factors to retain, it is necessary to check the factor loadings. Factor loadings are the correlation of a variable with a factor. Comrey and Lee (1992, as cited in Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996) suggest that loadings in excess of .71 (indicating 50% overlapping variance) are considered excellent, loadings of .63 (indicating 40% overlapping variance) are very good, and loadings of .55 (indicating 30% overlapping variance) are good. Loadings of .45 (20% overlapping variance) are fair and loadings of .32 (only 10% overlapping variance) are poor (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996, p. 677). Thus, variables with low factor loadings (.32 or below) should be deleted or rewritten. When looking at factor loadings it is common to see the communalities for each variable. These indicate the amount of varience that all common factors account for in each variable.

The goal of factor analysis is to achieve what is called simple structure. Simple structure refers to choosing the simplest explanation given the infinite number of rotations possible. Thurstone (1947) suggested five criteria for achieving simple structure. The most important is that, "each factor should have a few high loadings with the rest of the loadings being zero or close to zero" (p. 65). After achieving simple structure, the researcher must name the factors. This is done subjectively by looking at the specific variables loading on that factor and deciding what the underlying construct might be called.

Results

Some assumptions of factor analysis are normal distribution, large sample sizes (100 minimum), at least a 2:1 ratio of subjects to variables, and a 20:1 ratio of subjects to factors (Kline, 1997). Given the near zero values for kurtosis and skewness (statistics for testing normality) in the present data, the large sample size ($n = 701$), the use of a 26-item questionnaire, and a four-factor solution, all of these assumptions appear to have been met in the research presented here.

Since the original Daly & Miller study (1975a) had settled upon a one-factor solution, we began by also looking for a one-factor solution by using Principal Component Analysis, the procedure when only one factor is hypothesized. However, when it appeared that there was more than one factor, Maximum Likelihood Factor Analysis with Direct Oblimin rotation was used. An advantage of Maximum Likelihood Factor Analysis (ML) is that it, "has statistical tests for the significance of each factor as it is extracted," whereas, "other factoring methods are essentially convenient algorithms" (Kline, 1997, p. 50). Using ML, the test of fit was significant ($\chi^2 = 188.3167$, df = 62, $p < .0000$). We chose oblique rotation because the correlations of several factors exceeded .32 (see Table 2). In addition, items correlating with one another also loaded on the same factor. For example, Items 2, 4, and 25 all correlate with one another at .56 or higher and all load on factor three, giving support to the adequacy of the rotation.

Table 2: Factor Correlation Matrix

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Factor 1	1.00000			
Factor 2	-.44427	1.00000		
Factor 3	-.47141	-.58103	1.00000	
Factor 4	-.44106	-.16971	-.28036	1.00000

The number of factors to extract in this study was determined by comparing the scree plot to factors that had an eigenvalue of greater than one. Initially there were five factors with eigenvalues over 1.0; however, the scree plot suggested a four-factor solution. To confirm this, we also looked at three-, four- and five-factor solutions to determine the optimum solution for explaining the underlying structure and chose a four-factor solution. The eigenvalues and percent of variance are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Eigenvalues and Percent of Variance

Eigenvalues	Percentage of Variance	Cumulative Percentage
6.23370	39.0	39.0
1.84783	11.5	50.5
1.24915	7.8	58.3
1.05170	6.6	64.9

Factor loadings of .32 and above are often used to determine factors. However, in this study loadings of .32 produced several complex factors[2] and low communalities, thereby presenting problems for interpretation. By changing to a more stringent .55 loading we were able to delete several items, eliminating all complex factors and achieving simple structure. Items 5, 6 to 9, 13 to 14, 18, 21, and 23 had loadings of less than .55 and were thus deleted. We ran the factor analysis again and the factor loadings and communalities are shown in Table 4. Because some of the variables were deleted, in the future a new formula for calculating writing apprehension must be used. That formula is:

Writing Apprehension = 64 - positive scores + negative scores.

Here scores can range from a low of 2 to a high of 90.

Table 4: Factor Loadings and Communalities

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Communalities
Q15	.84069				.71591
Q17	.78095				.62560
Q03	.67349				.46583
Q10	.67274				.46640
Q01	-.54891				.38688
Q02		.81627			.67900
Q04		.81060			.66182
Q25		.70704			.65281
Q26			.78165		.63332
Q24			.70357		.51113
Q11			-.65312		.47677
Q22			.63922		.43598
Q16			.63169		.42466
Q20				.77300	.61754
Q19				.65274	.47124
Q12				.59683	.47568

Note: Factor loadings less than .55 are not shown with the exception of question 01, -.54891.

Table 5 shows the items that loaded on each factor along with the percentage of students choosing each answer. Deleted items (items that loaded at less than .55) are shown in italics.

The first factor included five items and accounted for 39.0% of the variance. We labeled this factor Enjoyment of Writing. Representative items are Item 15, "I enjoy writing," and Item 17, "Writing is a lot of fun."

Factor two consisted of three items which had loadings above .70. It accounted for 11.5% of the variance. This factor was labeled Fear of Evaluation and included Item 4, "I am afraid of writing essays when I know they will be evaluated," and Item 25, "I don't like my compositions to be evaluated." This factor seems to address evaluation in a classroom situation.

Table 5: Questions Arranged According to Factors with Percentages of Answers

Likert Scale Items*	SA	A	U	D	SD
Factor One: Enjoyment of Writing					
15. I enjoy writing.	8.1	41.9	31.1	15.8	3.0
17. Writing is a lot of fun.	7.0	32.4	32.1	25.8	2.7
3. I look forward to writing down my ideas.	7.7	26.1	29.5	30.7	6.0
10. I like to write my ideas down.	5.7	25.7	34.7	30.7	3.3
1. I avoid writing.	2.6	22.3	15.7	48.8	10.7
*8. Expressing ideas through writing seems to be a waste of time.***	*.4*	*.9*	*4.1*	*40.2*	*54.4*
Factor Two: Fear of Evaluation					
2. I have no fear of my writing being evaluated.	10.3	27.0	10.7	37.7	14.4
4. I am afraid of writing essays when I know they will be evaluated.	11.1	27.2	13.9	36.4	11.4
25. I don't like my compositions to be evaluated.	8.3	17.8	18.1	43.5	12.3
5. Taking a composition course is a very frightening experience.	2.0	6.1	11.6	46.9	33.4
Factor Three: Negative Perceptions about Writing Ability					
26. I'm no good at writing.	21.0	42.0	19.5	16.0	1.6
24. I don't think I write as well as most other people.	18.3	45.3	24.1	11.1	1.3
11. I feel confident in my ability to clearly express my ideas in writing.	.6	5.0	25.8	42.3	26.1
22. When I hand in a composition I know I'm going to do poorly.	7.0	20.0	38.1	30.5	4.4
16. I never seem to be able to clearly write down my ideas.	15.0	37.5	20.3	24.0	3.3
21. I have a terrible time organizing my ideas in a composition course.	*19.5*	*46.1*	*18.5*	*14.8*	*1.0*
7. My mind seems to go blank when I start to work on a composition.	*4.6*	*19.3*	*14.7*	*49.8*	*11.7*
23. It's easy for me to write good compositions.	*.3*	*2.9*	*8.4*	*52.5*	*35.9*
18. I expect to do poorly in composition classes even before I enter them.	*7.7*	*25.2*	*40.6*	*21.3*	*5.1*
13. I'm nervous about writing.	*11.8*	*35.1*	*19.6*	*27.4*	*6.1*
Factor Four: Showing My Writing to Others					
20. Discussing my writing with others is an enjoyable experience.	6.1	30.0	35.8	24.1	4.0
19. I like seeing my thoughts on paper.	6.4	32.2	40.4	17.7	3.3
12. I like to have my friends read what I have written.	2.6	14.6	24.4	45.0	13.6
14. People seem to enjoy what I write.	*.6*	*3.4*	*49.6*	*31.6*	*15.1*
9. I would enjoy submitting my writing to magazines for evaluation and publication.	*1.0*	*7.6*	*35.9*	*37.8*	*17.7*
6. Handing in a composition makes me feel good.	*5.8*	*24.3*	*29.8*	*34.4*	*5.7*

*SA = Strongly Agree; A = Agree; U = Uncertain; D = Disagree; SD = Strongly Disagree

** Questions in italics were deleted from the final four-factor solution.

Five items loading on the third factor accounted for 7.8% of the variance. Examples of items included in this factor include Item 24, "I don't think I write as well as most other people," and Item 26, "I'm no good at writing." This factor was labeled Negative Perceptions about Writing Ability and appears to tap students' perceptions about their ability to succeed in writing and to complete work in a writing class. One item, Item 11, "I feel confident in my ability to clearly express my ideas in writing" loaded negatively on this factor, meaning that it measures the other end of the scale, the student's positive perceptions of their ability.

There were three items included in factor 4 which was labeled Showing My Writing to Others. Factor 4 accounted for 6.6% of the variance. Some examples are Item 12, "I like to have my friends read what I have written," and Item 20, "Discussing my writing with others is an enjoyable experience." This factor is concerned with sharing writing with others, not necessarily for formal evaluation.

Discussion

Our study found four factors dealing with L2 writing anxiety while Daly and Miller (1975a) found only one factor. Why was there a difference? To answer this, it is necessary to examine how the two questionnaires were created. Daly and Miller followed the normal stages in instrument development. They spoke with high school and college composition teachers prior to developing items. The items they developed were modeled on existing communication anxiety measures. They subdivided their items into several categories such as general anxiety, teacher evaluation anxiety, peer evaluation anxiety, and professional evaluation anxiety. After running factor analysis and refining their instrument, they then used the instrument and were able to demonstrate its predictive ability.

However, we started with their questionnaire, which we had translated into Japanese. We then administered and analyzed it, refining the instrument by dropping items that did not have high loadings. One reason for the difference in number of factors might be the difference in the subjects of the respective studies: United States college students versus Japanese college students. Since one's culture can influence the rhetorical patterns one chooses (Kaplan, 1966; Brown, 1994), perhaps the way writing apprehension manifests itself differs according to culture. This is an important area for future research.

Another reason for multiple factors in these results is that this study is concerned with anxiety occurring when writing in the L2, whereas Daly and Miller were looking at writing anxiety in the L1. Anxiety may differ according to the language in which writing takes place. A third reason may relate to the different eras of the tests. Daly and Miller administered their questionnaire in 1974 and we administered ours in 1997. Over the last twenty years writing instruction has evolved by moving from a rhetorical-based approach emphasizing the product to a process approach which incorporates peer evaluation. (For a review of the history of second language writing instruction see Silva, 1990.) In 1974, the concept of "showing one's writing to others" may have involved seeking out a friend for informal response. However, for our second-year students in 1997, "showing one's writing to others" implies an organized system of peer evaluation in which each student's composition is read by three other students and written comments are offered.

In their questionnaire Daly and Miller concentrated heavily on writing evaluation, whether by teachers, peers, or professionals. Thus, their construct might more appropriately be named writing evaluation anxiety. Our subjects had little or no experience with professional evaluation and most of our first-year students (n = 392) had no experience with L2 academic writing classes. Therefore, their answers were speculative at best. Converse and Presser (1986) ask rhetorically, "If we ask a hypothetical question, will we get a hypothetical answer" (p. 23). Responding to hypothetical questions is a difficult task for subjects and this could be part of the reason why many of the deleted questions did not load on any factor. Five of the ten deleted questions dealt with L2 composition classes.

That anxiety in foreign language learning might load on more than one factor has some support from other research in applied linguistics. Aida's (1994) study found four factors (Speech Anxiety and Fear of Negative Evaluation, Fear of Failing the Class, Comfortableness in Speaking with Native Japanese, and Negative Attitudes toward Japanese Class), two of which were similar to the factors we found. Cheng et al. (1999) found three factors (Low Self-Confidence in Writing English, Aversiveness of Writing in English, and Evaluation Apprehension), all of which are similar to the factors that we found.

Thus, considering that the DM-WAT has been used in L2 writing apprehension research and that other measures of L1 anxiety have been used in the construction of foreign language anxiety measures, we feel that using the DM-WAT is warranted. Furthermore, the items which were retained all seem to have face validity; that is, they seem to measure the factor they have been assigned to. Finally, it is important to remember that validity does not reside in questions or instruments, but is something that must be established with each administration (Griffee, 1997).

Since we chose the DM-WAT, a questionnaire dealing with an existing construct, should we have used Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) rather than exploratory factor analysis (EFA)? CFA looks at previous studies or existing theory and tries to predict factor loadings on hypothetical variables. Its value lies in testing hypotheses. On the other hand, EFA, as Kline (1997) points out, "is ideal where data is complex and it is unclear what the most important variables in the field are" (p. 10). Unfortunately, as Kim and Mueller (1978) note, the division between the two functions is not always distinct. We did not have a hypothesis about what components make up the construct of L2 writing apprehension and the only theory that existed was for L1, not L2. Therefore, we chose to use EFA to investigate Japanese college students' L2 writing apprehension.

The validation process would have been stronger if we had back-translated the questionnaire to ensure that the meaning of the original items in English had not changed. Also, correlating our measure with an existing measurement of anxiety, such as the FLCAS, would have strengthened the process. Finally, predicting our students' performance in L2 writing class through our instrument's writing apprehension score, then using correlational analysis to examine the apprehension scores' relationship to L2 proficiency gains achieved by the end of the year would have added strength to validity claims. This is an additional area for future research.

Conclusion

Anxiety has been shown to affect the choices students make and their ability to perform in language classrooms. It has caused students to be misdiagnosed as indifferent, unprepared, or lazy. Anxiety is clearly an issue affecting many language learners.

The multiple factors found in this study suggest that the construct of L2 writing apprehension in Japanese junior college students is more complex than that which was found in studies using the original DM-WAT. In addition, other studies of foreign language anxiety have also found multiple factors, suggesting that there may be a difference between anxiety in L1 and in L2. Daly and Miller's instrument appears to have been valid in 1974 for the measurement of anxiety in a sample from the U.S. college student population. However, our instrument wss designed to measure Japanese college students' writing apprehension in the late 1990s, when writing instruction pedagogy had changed from that used 20 years earlier.

We have noted Griffee's (1997) warning that validity does not reside in an instrument, nor is it something that is awarded to an instrument for all time (1997). In addition, research that uses translated questionnaires must be viewed with caution. Translated questionnaires must be treated as new instruments which must go through their own validation process (Griffee, 1998). If one thing can be stressed from this study, it is that measures must be validated for new participant populations each time they are used.

Acknowledgments

The authors would like to thank Eiko Kato for translating the questionnaire into Japanese, and Akiko Katayama for translating the abstract into Japanese. The authors would also like to thank two anonymous reviewers for their helpful suggestions.

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Notes

1. We were not able to have the questionnaire back-translated. It took longer than we expected to receive a copy of the original Daly and Miller study so we only had two weeks before the start of the semester to prepare the translation. In addition, we wanted to administer the questionnaire at the beginning of the semester before students learned about the course requirements. By doing so we hoped their anxiety would not be affected. Finally, we wanted to administer the translated DM-WAT in the same semester that the students would take the Test of Written English (TWE).
2. A complex factor occurs when a variable loads highly on more than one factor, thereby making it difficult to identify the underlying construct.

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(Received June 28, 1999; revised December 14, 1999)

Appendix A

Modified Daly-Miller Writing Apprehension Questionnaire, English Version

Directions: Below are a series of statements about writing in English. There are no right or wrong answers to these statements. Please indicate the degree to which each statement applies to you when writing in English by circling whether you (1) strongly agree, (2) agree, (3) are uncertain, (4) disagree, or (5) strongly disagree with the statement. While some of these statements may seem repetitious, take your time and try to be as honest as possible. Thank you for your cooperation in this matter.

strongly agree	agree	uncertain	disagree	strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5

1. I avoid writing.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I have no fear of my writing being evaluated.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I look forward to writing down my ideas.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I am afraid of writing essays when I know they will be evaluated.	1	2	3	4	5

5. Taking a composition course is a very frightening experience. 1 2 3 4 5
6. Handing in a composition makes me feel good. 1 2 3 4 5
7. My mind seems to go blank when I start to work on a composition. 1 2 3 4 5
8. Expressing ideas through writing seems to be a waste of time. 1 2 3 4 5
9. I would enjoy submitting my writing to magazines for evaluation and publication. 1 2 3 4 5
10. I like to write my ideas down. 1 2 3 4 5
11. I feel confident in my ability to clearly express my ideas in writing. 1 2 3 4 5
12. I like to have my friends read what I have written. 1 2 3 4 5
13. I'm nervous about writing. 1 2 3 4 5
14. People seem to enjoy what I write. 1 2 3 4 5
15. I enjoy writing. 1 2 3 4 5
16. I never seem to be able to clearly write down my ideas. 1 2 3 4 5
17. Writing is a lot of fun. 1 2 3 4 5
18. I expect to do poorly in composition classes even before I enter them. 1 2 3 4 5
19. I like seeing my thoughts on paper. 1 2 3 4 5
20. Discussing my writing with others is an enjoyable experience. 1 2 3 4 5
21. I have a terrible time organizing my ideas in a composition course. 1 2 3 4 5
22. When I hand in a composition I know I'm going to do poorly. 1 2 3 4 5
23. It's easy for me to write good compositions. 1 2 3 4 5
24. I don't think I write as well as most other people. 1 2 3 4 5
25. I don't like my compositions to be evaluated. 1 2 3 4 5
26. I'm no good at writing. 1 2 3 4 5

[Note: modified portion of the DM-WAT begins here]

In high school how much writing experience did you have with the following:

4 = very frequently 3 = frequently 2 = infrequently 1 = not at all

Sentences	4	3	2	1
Paragraphs	4	3	2	1
Essays	4	3	2	1

Did you study abroad in an academic school? ________ If yes, for how long? ____________

Name: ________________ Student ID: ________ Class: ________________________

Appendix B

英語で文章を書くことについての意識調査

I. 下記の英語で文章を書くことについての質問に答えてください。正しいあるいはまちがった答えはありません。各々の項目であなたが英語で文章を書くときに感ずるとおりに、(1) 非常にそう思う (2) そう思う (3) わからない (4) そうは思わない (5) そうとは全く思わない のいずれかを○でかこんでください。いくつかの項目は重複しているように思えるかもしれませんが、よく考えて正直に答えてください。ご協力ありがとうございます。

非常にそう思う	そう思う	わからない	そうは思わない	そうとは全く思わない
1	2	3	4	5

1. 英語で書くことを避ける。 1 2 3 4 5
2. 英語で書いた文章を評価されることを大変恐れる。 1 2 3 4 5
3. 自分の意見を英語で書くことを楽しみにしている。 1 2 3 4 5
4. 英語で書いた文章を評価されると知っている時、英語で文章を書くのは嫌である。 1 2 3 4 5
5. 英語で考えを書き下ろすことは好きである。 1 2 3 4 5
6. 英語で考えを書き表す能力が自分にはあると自信がある。 1 2 3 4 5
7. 英語で書いた自分の文章を友達に読んでもらうのは好きである。 1 2 3 4 5
8. 英語で文章を書くことは楽しい。 1 2 3 4 5
9. 英語で自分の考えをうまくまとめることができるとは思えない。 1 2 3 4 5
10. 英語で文章を書くのは大変楽しい。 1 2 3 4 5
11. 自分が英語で書いた文章上に自分の考えを見るのは好きである。1 2 3 4 5
12. 自分が英語で書いた文章を他人と話し合うのは楽しいことである。 1 2 3 4 5
13. 英語で書いた作文を提出するとき、よい成績はとれないとわかっている。 1 2 3 4 5
14. 自分は他の人ほど上手に英語で文章を書けるとは思わない。 1 2 3 4 5
15. 自分が書いた英語の文章を評価されるのは嫌である。 1 2 3 4 5
16. 英語で文章を書くのは得意ではありません。 1 2 3 4 5

II. 次の項目に答えてください。

1. 高校時代にあなたは英語で文章を書きましたか。

大変よく書いた	よく書いた	あまり書かなかった	全然書かなかった
4	3	2	1

sentences	4	3	2	1
paragraphs	4	3	2	1
essays	4	3	2	1

2. 高校時代に英語圏の高校へ正規留学したことがありますか。はい いいえ
はいと答えた方はどのくらいの期間ですか。 (　　) 年

氏名：　　　　学籍番号：

クラス：

Awareness and Real Use of Reading Strategies

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This study uses a newly developed questionnaire to investigate the following three research questions dealing with Japanese learner awareness and use of strategies for reading English as a foreign language (EFL) texts: (1) What factors are extracted through factor analysis indicating the degree of EFL learners' awareness of reading strategies; (2) How do two types of strategy awareness, *use-awareness* and *effect-awareness,* interact with each other for better comprehension; and (3) What is the relationship between the learners' level of strategy awareness and their English proficiency level? Analysis of questionnaire data collected from 242 Japanese university EFL students suggests that three of the five extracted factors fit an interactive reading model. Although clear relationships were not observed between either type of strategy awareness and proficiency level, learners reported more frequent use of strategies they perceived to be less effective than strategies they perceived as effective. Based on these findings, classroom implications for strategy instruction are discussed.

本論は、新しく開発された質問紙を用いて、読解ストラテジーに関して日本人英語学習者がどのような認識を持ち、どのように使っているかを考察する。特に考察する点は次の三点である。（1）因子分析により、日本人英語学習者が持つ読解ストラテジーの使用認識に関してどのような因子が抽出されるか。（2）二種類のメタ認知（使用認識と効果認識）のスタイルが、より良い読解につながるか。（3）学習者のストラテジーの認識と習熟度との関係はどのようなものか。242名の大学生から得られたデータの分析から、（1）読解ストラテジーに関して抽出された因子の多くが相互読解モデルに適合すること（2）ストラテジーの認識と習熟度との間にははっきりした関係は本研究では認められなかったが、学習者が効果的でないと考えるストラテジーを頻繁に使用し、効果的と考えるストラテジーをあまり使用していないという認識をしていることが示された。これらの分析に基づき、本論はストラテジー指導のための提案をいくつか行なった。

With the rising interest in learning processes, achieving learner autonomy has become a major goal in language instruction. Many teachers agree that the appropriate use of language learning strategies serves to accomplish this goal. Researchers (e.g., Baker & Brown, 1984; Block, 1986; Barnett, 1988; Carrell, 1989) have reported that learners' awareness[1] of strategy use influences both comprehension

JALT Journal, Vol. 22, No. 1, May, 2000

and production in the target language. Such circumstances encourage language teachers to seek methods of strategy instruction within a theoretical framework. In their quest, however, teachers may encounter difficulties because of discrepancies existing among researchers regarding definitions and classifications of learning strategies.

One discrepancy is found between a classification model proposed in language education, e.g., the Strategic Inventory of Language Learning (SILL) by Oxford (1990) and one proposed in cognitive psychology research (e.g., O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). SILL employs six strategy categories: memory, cognitive, compensatory, metacognitive, affective, and social, whereas the cognitive psychology model includes only three: metacognitive, cognitive, and affective/social. However, this discrepancy is not considered to be so serious because considerable overlap is observed between the two models when their subclassification items are closely examined.[2]

Another discrepancy derives from different elicitation methods and seems more serious. With respect to reading, for example, a large gap exists between reading strategies investigated through think-aloud protocols (e.g., Hosenfeld, 1977; Block, 1986) and those investigated by analysis of structured questionnaires such as the SILL. This gap may be construed as natural because, "strategy questionnaires do not typically provide detailed, task-related information" (Oxford, 1996, p. 247) and the SILL is an inventory of language learning strategies in general, not an inventory of reading strategies. However, this discrepancy presents a problem for many English teachers in Japan who want to instruct students on the use of strategies for the four skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking, skills which are often taught independently at high schools and colleges in Japan.

As for the learners' awareness of language learning strategies, a number of studies have discussed the relationship between learner awareness of their own strategy use, *use-awareness,* and language proficiency, but relatively few studies have investigated whether or not the learners' awareness of strategy effectiveness is related to proficiency. Even if learners' awareness of strategy effectiveness in general *(effect-awareness)* is not as influential as their awareness of their own use of strategies (*use-awareness*), it is of interest to examine how these two types of learners' awareness might interact with each other to enhance reading comprehension.

In this context, a study using a newly developed strategy questionnaire was conducted to investigate the level of awareness which Japanese EFL learners at different proficiency levels have of different reading strategies and also their awareness of their own use of reading strategies. Based on analysis of data collected from 242 Japanese university EFL students, some classroom implications for strategy training are presented.

Research on Learners' Awareness of Reading Strategies

Baker and Brown's 1984 publication is considered a starting point for studies on learners' awareness of reading strategies in second language acquisition. These authors suggested that "declarative knowledge," or conscious awareness of effective strategies, is different from "procedural knowledge," or the ability to use such strategies, with the former preceding the latter. Barnett (1988) investigated the relationship between strategy use, awareness of strategy use, and reading comprehension. She suggested that not only students who use strategies effectively, but also those who think they use strategies tend to comprehend text better than students who neither use nor think they use strategies.

Building on the results of Barnett's study, Carrell (1989)[3] used a questionnaire with a five-point Likert scale and found that top-down strategies are related to second language reading performance, whereas bottom-up strategies are more related to foreign language reading performance. A research group at Tsudajuku (1992) conducted similar questionnaire research with Japanese university English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students as subjects. Factor analysis of the data revealed that good readers tend to use top-down strategies, whereas poor readers use bottom-up strategies. Yamato (1997) more closely examined the relationship between proficiency level and strategy awareness. The subjects of Yamato's study were 17 to 18 year-old Japanese high school students. Using a methodology similar to the Tsudajuku study, Yamato suggested that the situation may be more complicated because not all top-down strategies are positively related to proficiency level and some bottom-up strategies may enhance reading comprehension.

Limitations of Questionnaire Research

One problem with studies employing questionnaires is that only a few of the items have been used in valid and reliable strategy inventories of general language learning (e.g., the SILL developed by Oxford, 1990). Thus it is desirable to develop a new type of questionnaire that can bridge the gap between research-specific reading strategy questionnaires and the SILL.

Research Questions

The following research questions were investigated in this study through use of a new questionnaire designed to investigate awareness and use of EFL reading strategies and the relationship of strategies to English language proficiency:

1. What factors are extracted through factor analysis indicating the degree of EFL learners' awareness of reading strategies?
2. How do two types of strategy awareness, *use-awareness* and *effect-awareness*, interact with each other for better comprehension?
3. What is the relationship between the learners' level of strategy awareness and their English proficiency level?

Method

Participants

A convenience sample of 242 first- and second-year university EFL students studying at a private university in Japan completed the strategy questionnaire. There were 99 freshmen and 143 sophomores, all English majors. The percentages of males and females were 42.9% and 57.1% respectively and their ages ranged from 18 to 21. Among the students who answered the questionnaire, 196 students also took an Institutional TOEIC administered at the time of the study. The mean of the two section tests (listening and reading) was 440 (*SD* = 96.3) and the scores ranged from 220 to 775. Thus, the subjects' general English proficiency levels can be considered to be high beginning to high intermediate.

Development of the Reading Strategy Questionnaire

In developing a new questionnaire to probe learners' awareness concerning reading strategies, items used by Carrell (1989), the Tsudajuku study (1992), and Yamato (1997) comprised the core of the questionnaire. These items investigated particular reading strategies that were reported to affect comprehension (Hosenfeld, 1977; Brown, 1980; Baker & Brown, 1984; Block, 1986). However, the items were regrouped, following the strategy classification of Oxford's SILL.[4] In order to make up for a scarcity of items related to non-cognitive strategies, some items were replaced. The result was a total of 38 items in Japanese (see Table 2 for the English translation of the items). Broken down by SILL classification, the 38 items included eight metacognitive strategies,[5] 14 cognitive strategies, seven compensation strategies, four social strategies, three affective strategies, and two memory strategies. A seven-point Likert scale was provided for responses to items. The internal consistency of the instrument was .87 using Cronbach's coefficient alpha.

The questionnaire was designed to examine two types of learners' awareness of reading strategies. The first was the degree to which the learners perceive themselves to be *using* a given strategy (*use-awareness*), and the other was the degree to which they perceive a particular strategy to be *effective* (*effect-awareness*). The following explanation provides the rationale for inquiring about the two types of awareness in the same questionnaire.

In strategy training students sometimes report that they recognize that strategies are effective (effect awareness), but seldom report awareness of using strategies themselves (use awareness). Asking students about the two types of awareness thus makes it possible to observe if there are gaps between use-awareness and effect-awareness. Further, although a number of studies have reported the relationship between learners' awareness of their use of strategies (use-awareness) and their reading comprehension ability, few studies have compared the effects of both awareness types on reading comprehension. In this context, using a questionnaire that examines both types of strategy awareness can contribute to clarification of the relationship between strategy awareness and reading comprehension.

Procedure

The strategy questionnaire was administered in Japanese during regular class hours in a Survey of Linguistics class for the second-year students and in a Basic English Grammar class for the first-year students. Although the students were required to fill in their student number to match the questionnaire with the TOEIC score, they were informed that the results would be used only for research purposes and would not influence their grade for the course. The students were divided into three proficiency levels according to the TOEIC reading score.[6] The upper group and lower group consisted of students whose TOEIC reading scores were 1 *SD* above and below the mean, respectively, and the middle group consisted of students whose scores were within 1 *SD* of the mean. The descriptive statistics of the learners' TOEIC reading scores are given in Table 1.

Table 1: TOEIC Reading Section Scores ($n = 196$)

		M	*SD*
Upper	$n = 26$	282.9	31.1
Middle	$n = 144$	191.8	29.2
Lower	$n = 26$	111.7	24.2

$F(2,193) = 229.2, p < .001$

Statistical Procedures

Factor Analysis: Data from the questionnaire were analyzed through Principal Component Factor Analysis. Three items were excluded: Items 20 and 27 for ceiling effects, and Item 38 for floor effects (Table 2). Factor analysis was conducted with the remaining 35 items and varimax rotation produced five factors. Nyikos & Oxford (1993) explain that factor analysis is:

> a technique that statistically links related elements (in this case, learning strategy items) that vary in synchrony with each other, thereby forming a cluster of items bound together by one common underlying factor…By using numerical values, factor analysis provides information helpful in formulating psychological and educational constructs in a relatively objective manner (p. 14).

Other Statistical Procedures: A one-way ANOVA was used to examine the relationships among the three proficiency levels, the subjects' TOEIC reading scores and their awareness of reading strategies. Paired *t*-tests and Fisher's Least Significant Difference (LSD) post hoc test were used to examine the gap between the learners' use of the two types of strategy awareness (effect-awareness and use-awareness) and their proficiency level. Regression analysis examining the relationship of the TOEIC reading score to the use-awareness scores and the gap scores was also conducted.

Results

Factor Analysis of the Questionnaire Responses

The pattern matrix for loadings greater than .40 as a criterion of factor salience appears in Table 3. The cumulative variance of the five factors extracted was 45.6%. This means that nearly half of the variability of the 35 items is explained by the five factors.[7]

As can be seen in Table 3, Factor 1 consisted of nine items with appreciable loadings. Most of the items, except for Items 12 and 6, are related to top-down processing, which helps learners to understand the gist of the text. Even the remaining two items seem to be more related to top-down processing than to bottom-up processing because neither is related to the specific details of a sentence. Therefore Factor 1 was called Top-down Processing Strategies.

Factor 2 consisted of eight items. Although these items cover a variety of content, all are related to strategies concerning extracurricular practices that may help learners enhance their reading comprehension. Therefore Factor 2 was called Extracurricular Practice Strategies. Factor 3 consisted of seven items, all of which seem related to bottom-up pro-

Table 2: Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for the Items and Their Strategy Types

Item	Statement	Type	*M*	*SD*
When reading silently in English,				
1	I anticipate what will come next in the text.	Cog	4.02	1.37
2	I recognize the difference between main points and supporting details.	Cog	4.14	1.35
3	I relate new information to old information in the text.	Cog	4.49	1.30
4	I question the significance or truthfulness of the content.	Cog	4.13	1.27
5	I use prior knowledge and experience to understand the content.	Meta	4.93	1.42
6	I am aware of rhetorical structure of the text.	Cog	3.58	1.34
7	I monitor whether or not I understand the part I am reading.	Meta	4.26	1.37
8	I try to relax by thinking it's OK not to understand everything.	Affec	4.11	1.41
9	I relax my posture not to feel tense.	Affec	4.81	1.32
10	I read the text encouraging myself to believe reading is not difficult.	Affec	3.47	1.55
11	If I am unable to understand something, I ask somebody for help.	Soc	3.95	1.43
12	I discuss the difference between my interpretation and someone else's.	Soc	3.53	1.50
13	I mentally sound out the words.	Cog	5.07	1.61
14	I understand the meaning of each word.	Cog	4.46	1.37
15	I get the overall meaning of the text.	Cog	5.37	0.94
16	If I am unable to understand something, I divide the sentence into chunks.	Comp	4.75	1.30
17	I pay attention to rhetorical structure of text.	Cog	3.58	1.32
18	I grasp the grammatical structure of each sentence.	Cog	4.28	1.50
19	I relate the text to what I already know about the topic.	Meta	4.57	1.33
20	I find the meaning of unfamiliar words in a dictionary.	Cog	5.84	1.00
21	I guess the meaning of unfamiliar words from their affixes.	Cog	4.87	1.32
22	I understand the details of the content.	Cog	4.02	1.17
23	I grasp the idioms and phrase structures.	Cog	4.90	1.14
When reading silently in English, if I don't understand something,				
24	I guess at the content using imagination.	Comp	4.23	1.69
25	I reread the problematic part.	Comp	5.68	1.25
26	I reread a point before the problematic part.	Comp	5.57	1.21
27	I consult a dictionary for the meaning of unfamiliar words.	Comp	5.85	1.20
28	I focus on the grammatical structures.	Comp	4.90	1.49
29	I mentally sound out parts of the words.	Comp	5.36	1.25
As for reading in English, every day out of classes,				
30	I build up vocabulary by using a wordbook.	Memo	3.37	1.62
31	I review grammar and vocabulary often.	Memo	3.42	1.49
32	I read many texts about various topics.	Meta	3.23	1.40
33	I look for opportunities to use English.	Meta	4.52	1.46
34	I try to have good grammatical knowledge.	Meta	4.15	1.50
35	I try to acquire correct pronunciation of words.	Meta	4.92	1.56
36	I try to deepen my understanding of different cultures.	Soc	4.46	1.52
37	I try to think logically.	Meta	3.17	1.46
38	I make a study group with people with similar interests.	Soc	1.88	1.30

Note: The statement of each item is an English translation from the Japanese original.

Key for Strategy Type: Cog = Cognitive, Meta = Metacognitive, Affec = Affective, Soc = Social, Comp = Compensation, Memo = Memory

Table 3: Factor Analysis Results

Item	Factor Loading					Commonalties
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5	
3	0.71					0.53
4	0.66					0.47
2	0.62					0.42
1	0.59					0.47
19	0.54					0.45
12	0.50					0.35
6	0.48					0.63
5	0.46					0.36
15	0.45					0.41
31		0.75				0.67
30		0.74				0.62
33		0.68				0.55
34		0.67				0.56
35		0.65				0.48
32		0.64				0.52
36		0.52				0.45
37		0.45				0.41
7			0.73			0.55
14			0.71			0.53
18			0.64			0.53
22			0.61			0.44
23			0.55			0.41
28			0.54			0.51
16			0.46			0.41
21				0.58		0.53
29				0.47		0.37
25				0.45		0.49
24				0.43		0.28
25				0.40		0.49
11				-0.63		0.48
9					0.53	0.34
8					0.41	0.33
Eigenvalue	4.11	4.03	3.63	2.25	1.93	
Percent of Explained Variance	11.73	11.53	10.34	6.44	5.50	

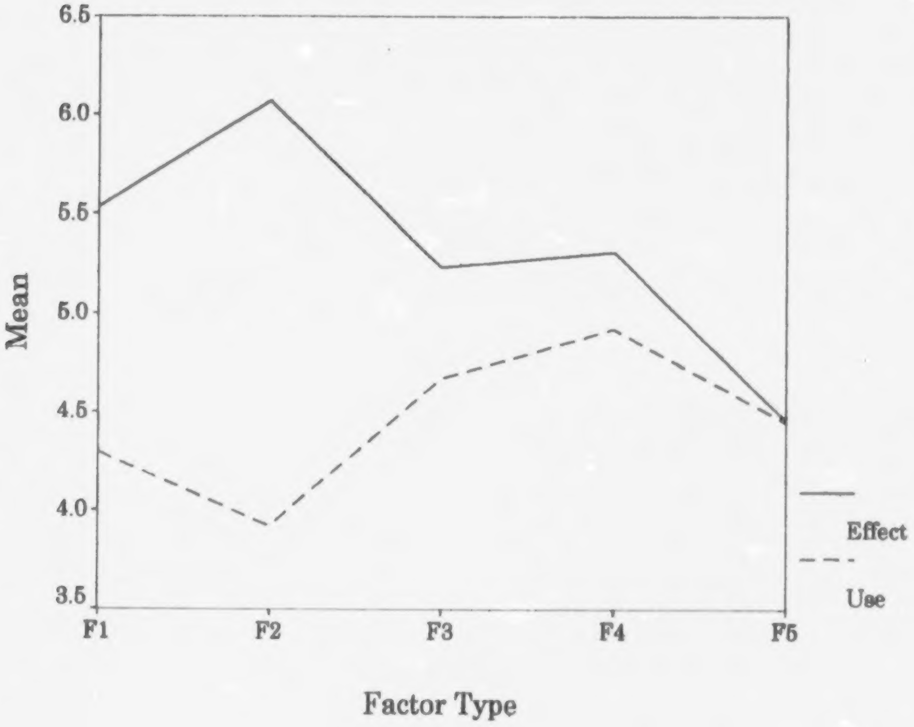
Note: Only items with loadings equal to or over 0.40 are indicated in the table.

cessing. Among these seven items, Items 18, 23, 28, and 16 concern sentence-level grammar and parsing. Therefore, Factor 3 was called Grammar-Oriented Bottom-up Processing Strategies. Factor 4 consisted of six items. The first two items, with the highest loadings, are strategies to figure out word meanings, that is, bottom-up strategies. Items 26 and 24, which focus on local points of the text, are also related to bottom-up processing. Although the remaining two items are not directly concerned with bottom-up processing, Factor 4 was called Vocabulary-Oriented Bottom-up Processing Strategies because the majority of the items with high loadings are related to bottom-up processing and word meanings. Finally, Factor 5 includes two items, both of which are strategies which learners can use to help them relax and lower the affective filter while reading. Therefore this factor was termed Relaxation Strategies.

The Gap between the Two Types of Strategy Awareness

The following calculations were performed to examine whether gaps existed between the students' reported use-awareness and effect-awareness. To determine use-awareness, each student's answers for each set of items constituting the five factors were tabulated to yield mean scores.

Figure 1: Gap between Two Awareness Types



The mean scores reflect the degree to which the students perceive themselves to be using each set of strategies contained in the five factors. The same procedure was done for the students' effect-awareness. Figure 1 and Table 4 show the difference, or gap, between the students' reported strategy use-awareness and their strategy effect-awareness.

Table 4: Matched t-tests for Gaps between Two Awareness Types
(n = 196)

Pair	Awareness Type	M	SD	t-value	df	p
Factor 1	Effect-awareness	5.54	0.61	19.29	195	*
	Use-awareness	4.37	0.82			
Factor 2	Effect-awareness	6.05	0.65	27.66	195	*
	Use-awareness	3.95	0.95			
Factor 3	Effect-awareness	5.24	0.82	9.79	195	*
	Use-awareness	4.59	0.85			
Factor 4	Effect-awareness	5.30	0.81	5.92	195	*
	Use-awareness	4.92	1.03			
Factor 5	Effect-awareness	4.57	1.06	0.03	195	n.s.
	Use-awareness	4.56	1.12			

* p <.001

As shown in Figure 1, gaps exist between effect-awareness and use-awareness. The results of a paired t-test presented in Table 4 show that, except for Factor 5, statistically significant differences exist between students' effect-awareness and use-awareness according to the factors. As anticipated, the score of effect-awareness is generally higher than that of use-awareness. This suggests that the students in this study are not using strategies as much as they may want to, although they recognize that strategies are effective. However, the scores of not only effect-awareness but also use-awareness are above the midpoint of the seven-point scales for most of the factors.[8] One interpretation of this result suggests that students consider themselves to be using reading strategies fairly frequently.

The magnitude of the differences between the reported levels of the two kinds of awareness varied depending on factor types. The largest gap was found with Factor 2, Extracurricular Practice Strategies. Factor 1 (Top-Down Strategies) also showed a fairly large gap. On the other hand, Factors 3 and 4, both of which are strategies for bottom-up processing, showed relatively small gaps between the students' reported effect-awareness and their use-awareness. Almost no gap existed between the two awareness types for Factor 5 (Relaxing Strategies).

As far as effect-awareness is concerned, as shown in Table 5, the scores of Factors 1 and 2 are significantly higher than those of Factors 3, 4, and 5. This means that the learners *perceive* strategies related to top-down processing or extracurricular practices to be more effective than those related to bottom-up processing or relaxation. As for use-awareness, however, the scores of Factors 1 and 2 were lower than those of Factors 3, 4, and 5, as shown in Table 6. This suggests that the learners perceive themselves to be *using* bottom-up processing or relaxation strategies more frequently than top-down processing or extracurricular practice strategies. Taken together, these somewhat contradictory results suggest that the students use strategies they perceived as *less effective* more frequently than they use strategies they perceived to be *more effective*.

Table 5: Matched *t*-tests for Effect-Awareness Score ($n = 196$)

Pair		*Mean*	*SD*	*t*-value	*df*	*p*
Pair 1	F1 & F3	0.299	0.72	5.95	195	**
Pair 2	F1 & F4	0.237	0.81	3.86	195	**
Pair 3	F1 & F5	0.974	1.10	13.86	195	**
Pair 4	F2 & F3	0.813	0.78	15.35	195	**
Pair 5	F2 & F4	0.754	0.94	11.51	195	**
Pair 6	F2 & F5	1.483	1.21	19.02	195	**

** $p < .001$

Table 6: Matched *t*-tests for Use-Awareness Score ($n = 196$)

Pair		*Mean*	*SD*	*t*-value	*df*	*p*
Pair 1	F1 & F3	-0.234	0.93	-5.73	195	**
Pair 2	F1 & F4	-0.552	0.99	-9.07	195	**
Pair 3	F1 & F5	-0.186	1.28	-1.73	195	+
Pair 4	F2 & F3	-0.643	1.05	-10.25	195	**
Pair 5	F2 & F4	-0.972	1.22	-11.78	195	**
Pair 6	F2 & F5	-0.608	1.43	-5.33	195	**

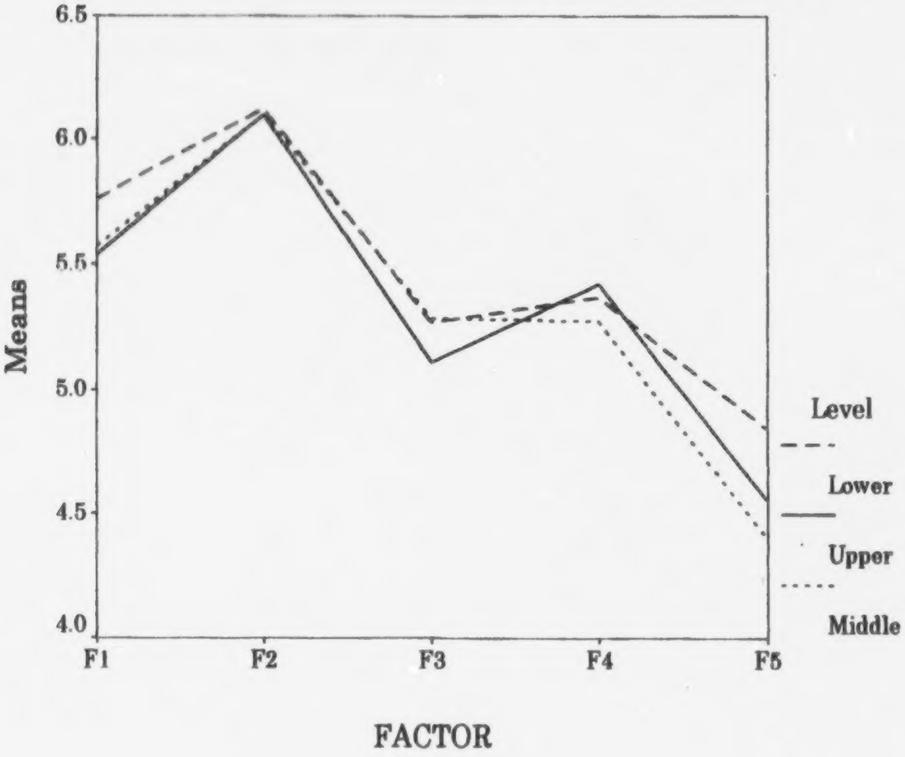
** $p < .001$
+ $p < .1$

Strategy Awareness and TOEIC Scores

In this section the relationship between the learners' two types of strategy awareness and their proficiency levels, as measured by their TOEIC reading section scores, will be investigated. First, the relationship between the learners' effect-awareness score and their TOEIC reading score is examined according to their proficiency group (Upper, Middle, or Lower)

Figure 2 suggests that the three proficiency groups have very similar patterns of effect-awareness of reading strategies. For all five factors, there were no statistically significant differences found among the three levels of proficiency. This is interesting because it has been reported elsewhere that learners' awareness of reading strategies is positively related to their proficiency (e.g., Barnett, 1988; Carrell, 1989; Tsudajuku, 1992; Yamato, 1997; Hirano, 1998). The difference between those studies and the present study is that *two* types of metacognitive awareness (effect-awareness and use-awareness) are used in this study. The con-

Figure 2: Effect-Awareness by TOEIC Reading

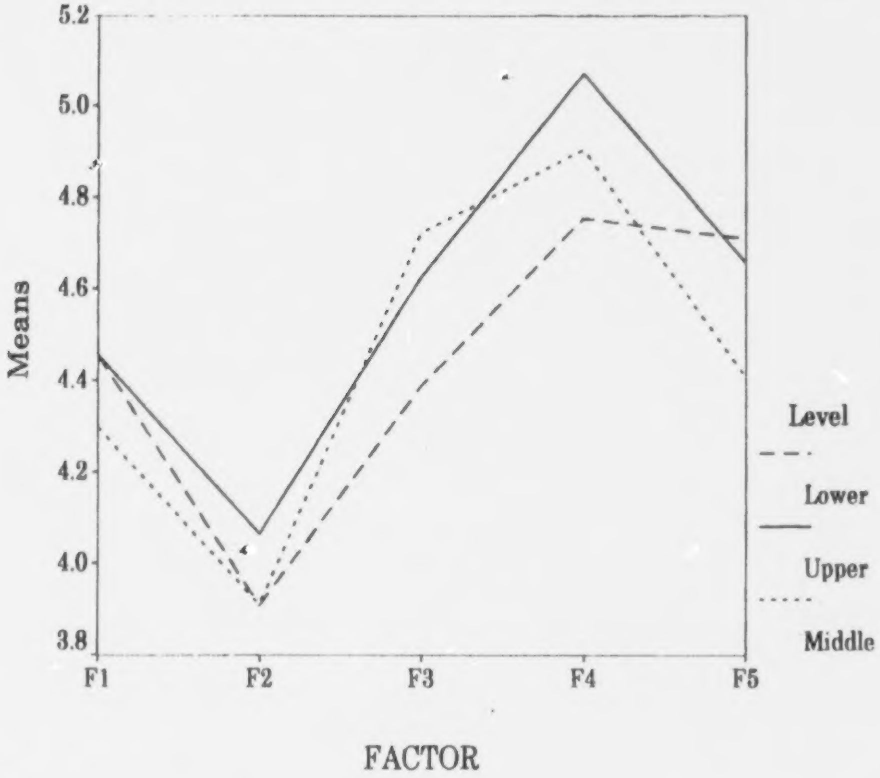


cept of use-awareness is almost identical to that of metacognitive awareness in other studies, whereas the concept of effect-awareness is unique to this study. Therefore all that the data have suggested is that mere knowledge of effective reading strategies will not necessarily lead to enhanced reading comprehension.

Two questions emerge from the results reported so far. First, do all learners, regardless of their proficiency levels, have the same pattern of awareness with respect to the effectiveness of reading strategies? Second, even if knowledge of effective strategies has not been shown to directly improve reading comprehension, is such knowledge therefore useless? These points will be discussed below.

As for the relationship between the scores of use-awareness and the TOEIC reading section scores, Figure 3 shows that the relationship of the use-awareness scores to proficiency is slightly different from that of the effect-awareness scores. A one-way ANOVA yielded a noticeable tendency for Factors 3 and 4.[9] As shown in Table 7, both upper and

Figure 3: Use-Awareness by TOEIC Reading



middle proficiency level students reported using Factor 3 strategies more frequently than students in the lower proficiency level group, and the upper group students also reported using Factor 4 strategies more frequently than did the lower group. However, there was almost no difference in the learners' use-awareness among the three groups for Factor 1 (Top-Down Strategies). These results are inconsistent with the findings of prior studies reporting that good readers tend to use top-down strategies whereas poor readers tend to use bottom-up strategies (e.g., Barnett, 1988; Carrell, 1989; Tsudajuku, 1992; Yamato, 1997).

Table 7: Results of ANOVA and LSD on Use-Awareness Scores of Three Proficiency Levels

	Upper (n = 26)		Middle (n = 144)		Lower (n = 26)				Post hoc
	M	*(SD)*	*M*	*(SD)*	*M*	*(SD*	*F*	*p*	*LSD*
Factor 1	4.43	0.81	4.26	0.84	4.42	0.69	1.04	n.s.	
Factor 2	4.09	1.07	3.88	0.98	3.87	0.83	0.42	n.s.	
Factor 3	4.67	0.62	4.75	0.89	4.34	0.69	2.69	+	U = M > L
Factor 4	5.11	0.61	4.92	0.77	4.73	0.72	2.23	+	U > L
Factor 5	4.63	1.05	4.39	1.09	4.66	1.26	1.93	n.s.	

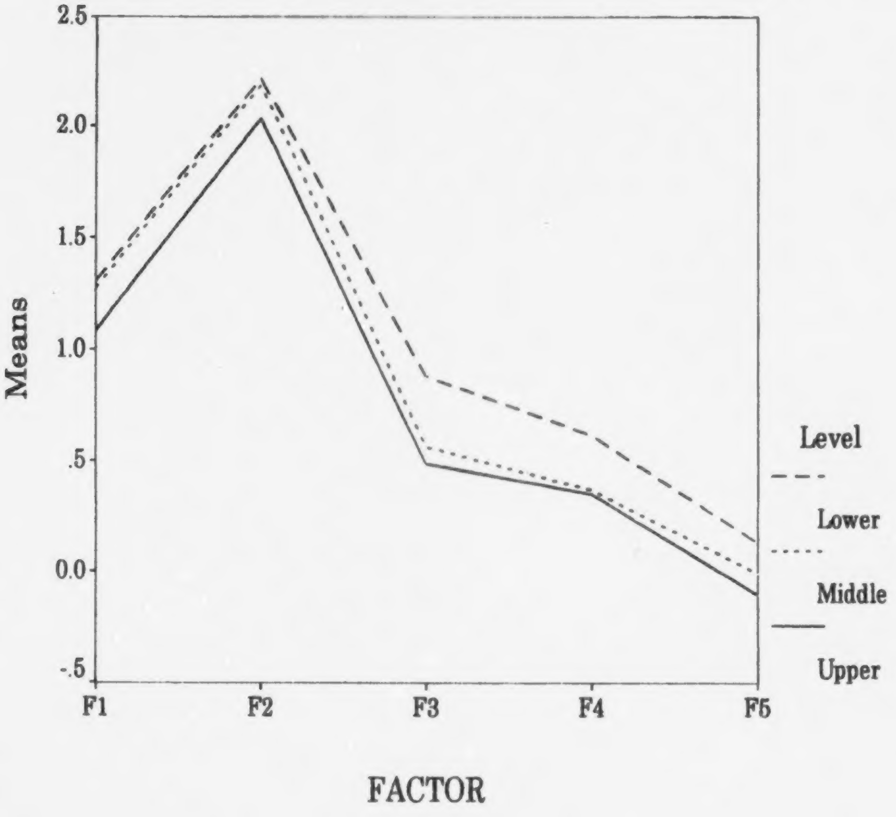
Note: LSD = Fisher's least significant difference test, which is equivalent to multiple individual t tests between all pairs of groups.
$+ p < .01$

One reason for these results may be that the TOEIC reading section consists of three parts: vocabulary, grammar, and reading passages, whereas previous studies were based only on reading measures. Furthermore, many questions in the reading passages are fact-based questions that do not necessarily require logical inferences based on top-down processing. The structure of the TOEIC reading section could have made the role of top-down strategies less important, thereby making it easier for learners who prefer bottom-up strategies to appear more proficient than they actually are. Another possible reason is that the lower group students have less grammatical competence so they might rely on top-down strategies in order to compensate for this lack. Such behavior may explained by an interactive-compensatory model proposed by Stanovich (1980). On the other hand, the middle group students may be slightly more confident in their grammatical competence and are willing to use that resource in reading. This might explain why, in Figure 3, the middle group students report using some bottom-up strategies as frequently as upper group students. As for the upper group students, perhaps they still have not reached the stage in which their grammatical competence makes decoding processes automatic. Therefore they may not be able to allot enough cognitive capacity for top-down processing to be significantly different from the other groups.

Finally, the relationship between the differences in the two awareness types and the TOEIC reading section scores is examined. As shown in Figure 4, the gaps between the two awareness types appeared to decrease as proficiency level increased for all factors, but it is only for Factor 3 that a Fisher LSD post hoc test yielded a noticeable tendency (U > L, $p < .1$).

Comparing this with the results for effect-awareness, for which there were no significant differences among the three proficiency levels, and with use-awareness, for which there were noticeable tendencies for two factors, the gaps between the two awareness types might be less related

Figure 4: Gap between the Two Awareness Types



to TOEIC reading scores than use-awareness by itself, but are more related to the scores than effect-awareness alone.

Discussion

The Gap Between Effect-Awareness and Use-Awareness

It has been shown that there is a difference between students' reported awareness of the effectiveness of different strategies (effect-awareness) and their reports of the strategies they are aware of using (use-awareness). Effect-awareness scores (meaning that students knew about strategies) were generally higher than use-awareness scores (meaning that they reported using strategies). This result suggests that learners' knowledge about which strategies are good or effective for reading (declarative knowledge) precedes their knowledge about how to use them (procedural knowledge). This interpretation is in line with the suggestions of Baker and Brown (1984).

Another finding is that the magnitude of the gaps between the two awareness types varies depending on the factor type. Although the students consider top-down strategies to be more useful for effective reading than bottom-up strategies, they report using bottom-up strategies and relaxation strategies more frequently than top-down strategies or extracurricular practice strategies. This suggests two possibilities. First, the students might not possess sufficient procedural knowledge of top-down processing strategies to use them, and second, they may perceive top-down strategies as superior to bottom-up strategies. Although this understanding of reading strategies is considered typical of most learners, it is contested by the interactive model proposed by Eskey (1988) and others (e.g., McClelland & Rumelhart, 1981; Stanovich, 1980; Perfetti, 1985), a model which, "does not presuppose the primacy of top-down processing skills–the gradual replacing of painful word-by-word decoding with educated guessing based on minimal visual cues" (Eskey, 1988, p. 94). Taken together, these facts indicate the need for teachers to provide learners with more opportunities to learn how to use top-down strategies. At the same time, learners also need to learn that top-down strategies are not necessarily better than bottom-up, relaxation, or extracurricular practice strategies.

The Relationship Between Strategy Awareness and Proficiency Level

As for the relationship between strategy awareness and proficiency level, results were inconclusive, with no clear statistical differences among the three proficiency levels. It was particularly surprising that there was no evident significant difference among the three proficiency levels for use-awareness scores.

There are two possible explanations for this unexpected result. The first concerns the subjects of this study. Compared to the subjects used by Green and Oxford (1995), a study reporting significant differences in the strategy use-awareness among three proficiency levels as determined by the scores of the *English as a Second Language Achievement Test* (ESLAT),[10] the range of the students' proficiency scores in this study was quite limited. In Green and Oxford's study, the three groups, labeled Prebasic, Basic, and Intermediate, covered a wide range of proficiency. The Prebasic level, with scores of 200 (the lowest possible) to 419, was regarded as low beginner. The Basic level, with scores of 420 to 570, was regarded as high beginner to low intermediate, and the Intermediate level, with scores of 571 to the highest possible score of 800, was regarded as high intermediate to truly advanced. The main differences in strategy use were found between the Prebasic level and the other two groups. Green and Oxford comment, "Had we only included Basic and Intermediate students in our sample, our results would have been much weaker" (1995, p. 286). Since most of the subjects in the present study have limited English proficiency and would therefore probably belong to the Basic group described by Green and Oxford, it is understandable that the data did not yield many significant relationships between strategy use-awareness and proficiency level.

However, this explanation is not sufficient considering the results of other studies (e.g., Tsudajuku, 1992; Yamato, 1997; Edasawa et al., 1998) which also used questionnaire methodology to investigate Japanese EFL learners with a limited range of proficiency levels, yet found significant differences in strategy use-awareness among the levels. The crucial difference between these previous studies of Japanese EFL learners and the present study is that only English majors participated in this research, whereas students from various non-English majors participated in the other studies. It is possible that, regardless of their proficiency level, English majors may be more highly motivated to study English than other students, and are more concerned about language learning strategies than students studying English as a course requirement or for examinations. Thus it can be suggested that the limited range of proficiency and the homogeneous nature of the subjects contributed to the inconclusive results reported here.

A second explanation for the lack of significant differences among the three groups is related to the data analysis procedure. As reported, tabulations were conducted only for awareness scores for each factor as a whole, ignoring differences among the scores for each strategy. Therefore there is a possibility that statistically significant differences might appear if specific strategies within each factor are examined. To examine this possibility, regression analysis of the TOEIC reading score with use-awareness scores and gap scores was conducted. Tables 8 and 9 show the results.

Table 8: Regression Analysis of Use-Awareness Score and TOEIC Reading Score

Item	Factor Type	*B*	*Beta*	R^2	*t*-value	*p*
1	F 1	12.41	0.34	0.06	4.32	**
34	F 2	-7.13	-0.20	0.09	-2.51	*
18	F 3	6.36	0.18	0.11	2.40	*
19	F 1	-6.3	-0.17	0.14	-2.19	*
Constant		173.02		26.77	**	

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

Table 9: Regression Analysis of the Gap Score and TOEIC Reading Score

Item	Factor Type	*B*	*Beta*	R^2	*t*-value	p
22	F 3	-7.56	-0.20	0.05	-2.41	*
5	F 1	-6.98	0.19	0.08	-2.24	*
1	F 1	-11.92	-0.34	0.11	-3.61	**
2	F 1	8.43	-0.24	0.13	2.63	**
11	NA	5.99	0.18	0.16	2.38	*
30	F 2	-6.89	-0.25	0.19	-3.01	**
34	F 3	6.88	0.24	0.22	2.68	**
Constant		200.67			26.77	**

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

As shown, a combination of use-awareness scores and gap scores is able to explain some variability of TOEIC reading section scores. The explained percentage of the variability–14% by the use-awareness scores and 22% by the gap scores–suggests that, compared to the use-awareness scores, the gap scores of specific strategies are more related to the

TOEIC reading section scores. This indicates that, even if learners think they use a certain strategy, such use may not necessarily lead to improvement in reading comprehension if the user is not fully convinced of the strategy's effectiveness. If this is the case, the gap scores for specific strategies might reflect the relationship between learners' two types of strategy awareness and their reading proficiency more accurately than the use-awareness scores alone.

The results of Tables 8 and 9 also show that more Factor 1 strategies are related to TOEIC reading scores than the strategies of the other factors. However, looking at the direction of the regression, it is difficult to determine which set of reading strategies is more related to reading comprehension because not all strategies belonging to the same factor behave in the same way. For example, in Table 8, Item 1 of Factor 1 (Anticipate what will come next in the text) shows a positive relationship with proficiency scores, whereas Item 19 (Relate the text to what I already know about the topic) shows a negative relationship. No conclusive explanation can be given at this stage, but it is possible that the excessive use of top-down strategies may lead the user to misunderstand the text. Comparing the two items, Item 19 seems to suggest that the user is using top-down strategies without appropriate decoding processes. As for the other two items in Table 8 related to grammatical competence, Item 18 (Grasp the grammatical structure of each sentence), which is positively related to proficiency scores, is a strategy used in the reading process, whereas Item 34 (Try to have good grammatical knowledge), with a negative relationship, is a strategy used independently of reading. Whereas the exercise of decoding skills in reading is effective, if the learner only practices grammar outside of English classes, and does not read as well, grammar practice alone will not promote reading gains. A similar interpretation seems to hold for the results in Table 9.[11]

Usefulness of Effect-Awareness

Several causes for the general lack of significant differences in learner awareness among the three proficiency levels have been suggested. However, one more question also needs to be briefly addressed: Is just knowing which strategies are effective (declarative knowledge) useless? In a review of studies related to the role of attention in second language acquisition, Tomlin and Villa (1994) suggest that awareness may indirectly lead to learning. They argue that, "awareness may augment alertness and orientation," both of which "may separately or together enhance the chances for detection to occur," which is "necessary for acquisition" (p. 197). Schmidt (1995) seems to take a stronger position regarding the role of awareness in learning, arguing that "awareness at the point of learning is required for all learning" (p. 27). Thus, it appears that awareness plays a role in language learning, in an indirect or a direct manner, so effect-awareness is useful.

However, in order to further investigate the complicated relationship between reading comprehension and the types of learners' awareness of reading strategies, future research using diverse subjects with a wide range of proficiency levels is necessary and this research should also be informed by findings from cognitive psychology regarding awareness.

Integration of the Reading Strategy Inventory with the Interactive Reading Model

In this study, five factors concerning reading strategies were extracted from a 38-item questionnaire by factor analysis. According to Oxford (1990, 1992), factor analysis provides evidence that the strategies classified in the SILL will work, particularly when they are combined with each other. In this context, it should be recalled that in the present study strategies belonging to different categories of the SILL appeared as items in factors characterized as Top-Down Strategies and Bottom-Up Strategies. This result is of some importance because it provides the possibility of integrating the SILL with an "interactive reading model" that "posits a constant interaction between bottom-up and top-down processing in reading, each source of information contributing to a comprehensive reconstruction of the meaning of the text" (Eskey, 1988, p. 94). Since this interactive model has been regarded as a powerful model explaining the reading process, it is possible that the strategies classified in the SILL will work better or will be easier to acquire if they are presented in concert with the interactive reading model. The following section makes specific pedagogical recommendations for doing so.

Conclusion

The results of the present study have relevance for strategy instruction. The first implication derives from the fact that the students perceive top-down strategies to be superior to bottom-up strategies, and yet they seem to be less aware of how to use top-down strategies than how to use bottom-up strategies. In other words, top-down strategies are seen as effective but difficult to use, thus making learners less willing to use them.

Regarding this restricted use of top-down strategies, some researchers (e.g., Clark, 1980; Lee & Schallert, 1997) have suggested that there is a proficiency "threshold" for successful employment of top-down strategies. However, such a "threshold hypothesis" should not be misinterpreted as a call for a return to traditional grammar-oriented language teaching. In fact, many traditionally-instructed learners tend to think that the intellectual guessing characteristic of top-down processing is something that they can acquire only after a struggle to develop high-level proficiency and is not a skill to be used at more basic levels. While it is true that automatic decoding skills enable fluent readers to employ various higher-level top-down strategies, this does not mean that any fixed level of grammatical competence ensures the "automaticity" of the decoding process. In other words, the "threshold" level varies depending on the difficulty of a given task. In this context, the use of top-down strategies should be encouraged even at the early stages of language learning. By starting strategy instruction with emphasis on how to use top-down strategies–even for beginning students with neither solid grammatical competence nor a large vocabulary–the students will be able to understand the nature of reading and can develop an appropriate awareness of reading strategies as they progress as readers.

This kind of strategy training will eventually lead learners to the state in which they can choose a strategy appropriate for a given task from their inventory of both top-down and bottom-up strategies and can use the strategies interactively.

The second implication derives from the result that reading strategies classified into different categories of the SILL converged into five factors in the data reported here, three of which fit in with an interactive model of reading. This suggests that EFL learners unconsciously rely on the most viable information-processing model for a particular target language skill. If this is the case, it is important to design strategy instruction with due consideration for an appropriate learning model of the target skill.

The five metacognitive elements in strategy instruction given by Winograd and Hare (1988) are useful to consider when attempting strategy training. As cited in Carrell (1998), the five elements are: (1) what the strategy is; (2) why the strategy should be learned; (3) how to use the strategy; (4) when and where the strategy should be used; and (5) how to evaluate use of the strategy. According to Carrell (1998), "successful strategy training can involve some but not necessarily all of the desirable elements of metacognitive strategy training" (p.11).

To introduce metacognitive elements in strategy training in the EFL classroom in Japan, students should receive an explanation of the interactive reading model and receive instruction on "when and where the strategy should be used." In cases where explanation is not enough, it might be helpful to have learners try what the instructor considers to be an unsuitable strategy as well as a correct one so that they can appreciate the importance of using strategies selectively. It is possible that students can learn from negative evidence as much as from positive evidence in their strategy training.[12]

Whatever effective strategy training is developed, it is not the training itself but the teacher, together with the learner, who determines its success. Teachers with the dual responsibilities of instructor and researcher will need to make more effort to link research findings with classroom teaching to create effective programs for strategy use.

Acknowledgements

This article is based on a presentation given at JALT98 in Omiya. The author would like to thank the two anonymous reviewers for their suggestions and valuable comments on earlier versions of this paper.

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Notes

1. The term "awareness" in this study is similar to the definition given in Tomlin and Villa (1994) since it refers to the learner's subjective experience of content and external stimulus. Therefore the term is different from "consciousness," which has multiple associate meanings, as explained in Schmidt (1990).
2. See Oxford (1990, pp. 18-21) and O'Malley and Chamot (1990, p. 46) for a detailed explanation of their subcategorization systems.
3. In her study and in the other two that used a strategy questionnaire (Tsudajuku, 1992; Yamato, 1997), the questionnaire was administered in the learners' native language in order to avoid having the level of language proficiency in the target language affect the results.
4. It was not easy to classify strategies according to the SILL categories, because a strategy can be labeled differently depending on the way it is interpreted. For example, Item 30 (I build up vocabulary by using a wordbook) was categorized as a memory strategy, but it can also be considered a cognitive strategy if systematic memorization is emphasized.
5. Oxford (1990) claims that some strategies affect language learning directly and others indirectly. In this context, although Items 33 to 38 seem irrelevant to reading, it was considered necessary to include them in the questionnaire as metacognitive strategies for planning in order to examine whether or not the learners' awareness toward indirect strategies affects comprehension.
6. The point at issue here is the relationship between the learners' awareness of reading strategies and their reading comprehension. Therefore the reading section scores are considered to be appropriate in determining the students' proficiency level.

7. The preferred value for the variability explained by extracted factors is above 50%, but the value in this study is considered acceptable in comparison with other reading strategy studies employing factor analysis. In Hirano (1998), the value was 40.6% by five factors, in Green and Oxford (1995), the value was 51.6% by nine factors, and the value is not given either in Nyikos and Oxford (1993) or in Tsudajuku (1992).
8. The only exception is the use-awareness score of Factor 2, but its value is as high as 3.95.
9. Although the usual significance value for applied linguistics research is $p < .05$, the author judged that probability values slightly above the boundary should not be disregarded. Therefore, this value is retained in the study. However, there is a strong necessity to replicate the research presented here.
10. ESLAT is a general proficiency test administered only in Puerto Rico and its validity and reliability are well-established. See Green and Oxford (1995) for a detailed explanation.
11. In interpreting Tables 8 and 9, it should be noted that negative values reflect a positive relationship with reading comprehension because the smaller the gap, the higher the proficiency level.
12. Practice providing negative evidence is more suitable for intermediate learners who possess a fairly good knowledge of reading strategies but have difficulty using them appropriately. Beginning learners should practice good strategies first.

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(Received January 15, 1999; revised July 28, 1999)

Research Forum

Which Words? A Comparison of Learner and Teacher Choices for Lexical Study

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Lexical study often sits at the periphery of English lessons and textbooks in Japan, meaning that learners and teachers alike fail to give lexis the attention that it deserves. What this suggests is that learners fail to utilize these fundamental building blocks of the language which could offer widespread benefits to their holistic English development. This limited exploratory study looks at the choices and selection criteria that various groups of learners used to select lexical items from a set text. These are compared with choices and criteria used by teachers, as well as the recommendations of scholars in the field. The author found that not only did choices vary considerably between learners and teachers, but also that these choices often did not correspond to an informed understanding of the nature of lexis.

単語学習は、日本における英語授業や英語学習教材の中では付属的なものと考えられることが多い。これは単語学習に払われるべき注意を、学習者・教師の双方が怠っていることを意味している。これはまた、学習者が、英語学習全般に大きくかかわっている単語という言語の構成部品を十分に利用できないでいることを示している。

本論文では、限定的ではあるが、英語学習者が英文から単語を選び出す際に、何に注目して選定を行うのかを考察した研究を報告する。学習者が行った単語の選定方法は、教師が行った単語の選定方法、研究者が報告した選定方法と比較して考察を行った。その結果、教師と学習者では単語の選定方法が異なるだけでなく、いずれの選定方法も、単語の本質についてこれまでに報告されている内容と必ずしも合致しないことが判明した。

Despite the increased advocacy of a "lexical syllabus" or a "lexical approach" to English language learning in recent years, many textbooks and lesson plans in Japan still appear to give lexical studies only peripheral status (Fukuda, 1994) in favor of the much narrower concept of "vocabulary." While lexical studies take into account the syntagmatic, collocational and other environmental qualities of an item (which may well be a set phrase, polyword or any self-contained unit of meaning), "vocabulary" tends to be limited to single words and their *paradigmatic* meanings (Carter, 1987; Sinclair, 1991). Moreover,

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those single-word items that have concise, dense, limited meanings tend to make up a relatively small amount of both written and spoken English text, according to corpus-based studies (Sinclair, 1991; Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985; Swan, 1995). Halliday and Hasan's (1976) and Halliday's (1990) delineation of the ideational, interpersonal, and textual functions of language indicate that while the latter two functions are heavily represented in texts, much classroom vocabulary teaching tends to focus inordinately upon the former (Carter, 1987). In-depth research into specific lexico-grammatical items like that of Francis (1985) and Schiffrin (1987) underscores the crucial role that interpersonal and textual items play in spoken discourse in particular. Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) and Sinclair (1991) have all long argued that mastery of delexicalized items and high-frequency, high-valency, wide-range, syntagmically significant polywords that make up such a large part of English is a key to the mastery of the language on a holistic scale. Lewis (1993) and Willis (1990) strongly advocate syllabi that key upon such lexico-grammatical "chunks" as basic analytical units for language learning.

Yet in many English lessons in Japan, according to Fukuda (1994), the potential richness of lexical study is often reduced to mere scraps of "vocabulary." Fukuda notes that this tends to appear in most lessons via two primary paradigms, neither of which treat lexis as an object worthy of study or analysis in its own right.

The first paradigm is that of a *decoding* system, which employs vocabulary study primarily as an aid for successful negotiation of the text that is before the learners. This usually consists of the teacher making a list of vocabulary items for pre-teaching or fielding learners' questions about "difficult" items while learners are doing the task. A translation or explanation is then provided and is presumed to help the learners to "get through" or decode the text, allowing the learners to complete the more "pertinent" tasks more efficiently.

This paradigm represents a concession to Nunan's (1989) argument that both learners and teachers should be more concerned with interacting with a text and completing the tasks related to it than with the analysis of its constituents. It is argued that "constituent analysis" often obscures the learners' search for meaning and inhibits absorption of the communicative function of a text. Thus, users of this paradigm may tend to overlook the import of lexical analysis, which involves the atomizing of text constituents, fearing that it may interfere with comprehension of the more general or holistic meaning.

The second paradigm noted by Fukuda (1994) encourages learners to make and keep vocabulary notebooks based on the new items they have encountered in classroom texts (along with, perhaps, a translation or small notation). This paradigm, which may be appended to the first, adds an *encoding* element to the study. This usually consists of students amassing encyclopedic lists of invariably "new" items that have arisen from the text, generally after the "main" tasks of the lesson have been completed.

According to Fukuda's (1994) study, teachers often allow some classroom time for this activity but little supervision or guidance is given in the process of item choice or the content of the accompanying notation. In most cases, the nature of these notations and their future uses are not made clear, as vocabulary's place in the syllabus seems to be little more than that of a taxonomy or appendix. Often these two concessions to "vocabulary" learning constitute the entire lexical element of a syllabus.

Fukuda (1994) notes that this approach is often defended by teachers on the basis of the belief that interference with the learners' choices ignores the inner agenda of the learner and inhibits autonomous learning, a viewpoint often attributed to Swain (1995). In a learner-autonomy paradigm, there is a tendency to view teacher-centeredness as anachronistic and (wrongly) associated with the prescriptivism of grammar-translation methodologies. I should note here that although neither Nunan (1989) nor Swain (1995) themselves appear to explicitly disapprove of a deliberate, teacher-guided focus upon lexical constituents of a text, their respective emphases appear to have influenced many teachers in adopting such methodological positions (Fukuda, 1994).

However, in this paper, I intend to show that if we are to take lexis seriously and put it in the forefront of our syllabus where advocates of a lexical syllabus such as Carter (1987), Lewis (1993), and Willis (1990) argue that it deserves to be, a teacher-centered, stipulative approach will most benefit learners in making wise, useful choices for lexical study and choices for analysis. This will, in fact, aid in increasing comprehension of general meanings because (1) a certain degree of initial teacher-centeredness can allow for a higher quality of eventual learner autonomy, and (2) the analysis of lexical constituents in fact allows learners to more fully apprehend meaning beyond the merely ideational. I will also argue that teachers themselves will often require a greater awareness of the characteristics of lexis before they can meaningfully impart such skills to their students.

Evidence for this conclusion comes from a limited exploratory study I conducted in which learners' lexical choices from a short text were quantified and then compared (quantitatively *and* qualitatively) with teachers' choices. The resulting disparity between the two groups' choices, compared further to lexical scholars' analysis of these lexical items, indicates (1) it is better not to leave learners up to their own devices when analyzing lexis and making choices for future study of these items, and (2) that teachers themselves often neglect to note certain central qualities of lexis.

Research Focus

For a long time as a teacher I had strictly obeyed the pedagogical dicta of practicing student autonomy and giving priority to meaning over form. As a result, I had left vocabulary study choices to the vagaries of each student's needs and wishes without any interference on my part. But having regularly noted my students making questionable choices in regard to items listed in their vocabulary as well as demonstrating a clear lack of awareness of lexical patterning, I gradually became aware that my concept of student autonomy was akin to teacher negligence. Therefore, I conducted a short exploratory in-class study to reveal the nature of learners' selections of lexical/vocabulary items and to learn what focuses and prejudices students entertained about English lexis. I was also curious as to how these compared to teachers' selections. If different criteria were being employed by teachers and students, what were they and why? The results of these inquiries follow. After presenting and analyzing the results, I then compare learners' and teachers' selections with what scholars of lexis have to say on the subject.

Method

The study was performed and analyzed over six months of 1998. A short text was taken from a script from the NBC medical drama, *E.R.* This text was chosen precisely because it is so rich in its variety of lexical items. The following text was used:

> *Well, I would have gotten over it sooner, but damn it, then this, this . . . what's it called . . . this coniosporosis just went and made things worse.*

Subjects

Three groups of subjects were used:

1. 97 second-year university medical students, currently taking required English courses. None were English majors and skill levels varied greatly.

2. 96 second-year English majors at a different university, most with upper intermediate or advanced English skills.
3. 25 English teachers (eight Japanese and seventeen non-Japanese) teaching at colleges and universities in Japan. The teachers were former colleagues and associates of mine and represented a variety of age groups, nationalities, qualifications, teaching experience, and knowledge of Japanese learners of English. All were teaching general, non-specific/professional English to intermediate or upper intermediate Japanese learners of English. This teacher sample was completed by e-mail.

Two intact classes were used for this study as a sample of convenience. Both classes contained a variety of attainment levels and study habits, a balance of males to females and a slightly wider age range (19 to 30) than normally expected in a Japanese university. The inclusion of a sample group from a medical school could have implications for a discussion of ESP but is beyond the immediate scope of this study.

Procedures

The two learner groups were asked to complete the task with myself as monitor. All instruction was also translated by a colleague into Japanese to minimize faulty understandings of the task and its contents. In presenting learners with the text on a slip of paper, I provided the learners with following information and instructions:

> The following line comes from a TV show. The speaker is a middle-aged man who is in hospital with a serious sickness. He is speaking to other members of his family. After reading the line, choose five items from it that you think would be most useful for your general English study in the future; that is, items that you'd likely include in your language learning notebooks. The items don't have to be single words. They may be phrases, phrasal verbs, grammar points, word combinations, social features or anything else that you think is important or useful for the improvement of your general English skills.

Before the subjects made their selections, my Japanese colleague and I explained the meaning of the text both in general and item-specific terms, until all subjects indicated that they had sufficiently understood it. I strongly emphasized that the learners should focus upon choosing items for "future" and "general" English learning, rather than for comprehension of the sample text alone. The learners were then asked to each choose their five items. All responses were written under the text on individual slips of paper which were then collected. Learners did not identify themselves by name on the slip of paper. They were also asked, but not required, to write the reasons for their choices.

Separately, the twenty-five English teachers were asked which five items from the text they would highlight for teaching purposes or have their learners highlight for general skills or future study. All were asked to make their choices with their own classes in mind. The same explanation as that given to the learners was sent by e-mail to teacher subjects (substituting "your *students*" where appropriate). As with the learner samples, teachers were also asked to provide reasons for their choices. No subjects were made aware of the objective of this study.

Results

Lexical Analysis of the Text

Before we look at the results of the subjects' choices, let us first analyze some of the more pertinent lexical features that arise within the text. No singular method of analysis was used here as the various items within the text hold differing properties that are best explicated by a variety of analytical methods. Much of my analysis is informed by the lexical scholarship of Carter (1987) who argues that:

> The structural semantic and relational properties of lexical words . . . and of some words having greater lexicality than others is of considerable potential relevance and interest for studies with an applied linguistic perspective. (pp. 28-29)

I have previously noted the centrality of the connotative and syntagmatic properties of items keeping in mind Carter's (1987) suggestion that:

> It is dangerous to pursue the meaning of a word by exclusive reference to what it denotes; stylistic and associative meanings are often as significant . . . an analysis of words which remains at the level of the word . . . and does not consider the role and function of words within larger linguistic and contextual units will be inadequate. (pp. 28-29)

Also employed here are the results of the corpus-based studies of Sinclair (1991) which indicate not only item frequency but the notable valency of lexically light items, concluding that:

> Learners would do well to learn the common words of the language very thoroughly, because they carry the main patterns of the language. (p. 79)

Much of this analysis is also influenced by the "chunking" methodology of Lewis (1993) who identified lexical items as having the following three properties:

> 1) Meaning is not totally predictable from form. 2) Each is a minimal unit for certain syntactical purposes. 3) Each is a social institution (p. 89).

Related analytical tools used include noting set polyword units, the "prefabricated patterns" of Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) who state:

> Research in computational analysis of language . . . confirms the significance of patterned phrases as basic, intermediary units between the levels of lexis and grammar (p. 23).

Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992) regard these lexical patterns as central to the development of pragmatic competence. Thus, for certain items, the pragmatic and sociolinguistic forces of lexis as explicated in the discourse analysis scholarship of Schiffrin (1987), Fasold (1990) and Francis (1985) are utilized. For others, the lexico-grammatical qualities that affect syntax as noted in comprehensive grammars such as those of Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, and Svartvik (1985) and Swan (1995) are applied, as well as the three discourse-defining metafunctions noted by Halliday and Hasan (1976).

Let us proceed in the order in which the items appear in the text:

1. *Well:* This is a delexicalized word (it has a *use* or *function* rather than a *meaning*) and as such, has a very high frequency (Quirk et al., 1985; Sinclair, 1991). It thus holds high recognition value among learners. Used here as a discourse marker, it has a very clear textual function as it is primarily used to signal an explanation (Fasold, 1990). It also has a clear interpersonal function, as it is often used to signal an alternate response that the original interlocutor is perhaps not expecting to hear or that is different from that which the interlocutor has implied (Schiffrin, 1987). It can thus take on both softening or intensifying functions. Traditionally, such items have been treated as grammatical, not lexical, units (Lewis, 1993; Carter, 1987).

2. *Would have . . . en:* A quintessential example of a lexical "chunk" that straddles lexico-grammatical boundaries (Willis, 1990), "would" has extremely high frequency (Sinclair, 1991) and the "have + en" collocation in particular is a major feature in all registers and genres of English. Because of its grammatical properties, it is lexically light; that is, it does not offer up an immediate meaning to the learner (Willis, 1990). Constructing the combined unreal/perfective aspect, and knowing *when* to apply it, is notoriously difficult for Japanese learners of English.

3. *get/got/gotten:* The wide lexical range (meaning potentials) of "get" also makes this a very high frequency item (Sinclair, 1991; Carter, 1987). It has high recognition value amongst learners who tend to ascribe to it a prototypical (core) meaning akin to "receive."

However, its high degree of valency (ability to combine with a variety of linguistic environments), along with its heavy polysemy (variety of meaning potentials) (Swan, 1995), may indicate that familiarity with a prototypical sense alone is unlikely to imply a complete or even adequate understanding of such an item (Lewis, 1993).

4. *get over—:* This is a fairly high-frequency phrasal verb and, as with many phrasal verbs, it is more frequent in low register or casual speech (Carter, 1987). Again, there is a variety of meanings but all carry a strong degree of lexical density (i.e., they correspond to a clear, discrete concept or idea).

5. *it:* This is an anaphoric (referring to an item previously made explicit) discourse marker serving a textual cohesion function (Francis, 1985).

6. *damn it:* This is an expletive, expressive "social" phrase which clearly indicates the speaker's attitude towards the matter at hand. It does not show a particularly high frequency in speaking and may be more closely related to idiolect (personal "style"). Register and genre are key factors in its usage.

7. *this, this . . . this:* This is also a cohesive discourse marker (in this case cataphoric, looking forward to a reference), but perhaps more noteworthy as a "chunk" is the repetition of the item. As such, it has a pre-sequencing function which indicates the speaker's lack of familiarity (perhaps disgust) with, or confidence in, using the term that follows ("coniosporosis").

8. *what's it called:* A common self-repair strategy, here manifested as a complete lexical phrase, (Nattinger and DeCarrico [1992] would classify it as a "deictic locution") that usually precedes an item that one is attempting to name. It reinforces the lack of assuredness regarding the term to follow and is notable for its collocation here with "this, this . . . this" (see #7 above). Such formulaic chunks are now considered to be at the very center of the language acquisition process (Nattinger and DeCarrico, 1992).

9. *coniosporosis:* A very lexically dense, extremely low frequency item with a very professional register, related almost exclusively to the medical discourse community. Such lexically dense items are far more typical of written English (Halliday, 1990). (Coniosporosis is a condition in which a combination of asthmatic and acute pneumonic complications occurs after one ingests a particular tree-based fungus. It does not appear to be widely known even among

native speakers in the medical community.)

10. *just:* Like "get," "just" is an extremely high-frequency, wide-range item which has much higher frequency in spoken than written English (Carter, 1987). Also like "get," its prototypical meaning ("only") often does not aid in the interpretation of many of its usages. It often performs an interpersonal function, that of intensifying or emphasizing an utterance (Swan, 1995), quite at odds with its core meaning. Repeated use may mark it as idiolect.

11. *went and/go and:* A fairly high-frequency chunk, nearly uncategorizable by traditional grammatical standards (describing it simply as a lexical phrase serving a discourse marking function may be most accurate). It has generally low register usage, is extremely light lexically, and is usually found in explanations or narrative genres, particularly in the spoken language. It appears to reflect idiolectic tendencies and is largely a North American variety, adding interpersonal flavor to an utterance by appending a negative, judgmental force (often meant to convey a sense of unfairness or disgust).

12. *make . . . worse:* A moderately high frequency lexical phrase, having a variable relationship with other comparative adjectives (an example of Nattinger and DeCarrico's [1992] "phrasal constraints"). Learners are often fairly knowledgeable of and accurate in using each word within the phrase but often do not know it as a set phrase, even though in this case the meaning is deducible by merely combining the individual items within the phrase. As with many lexical phrases, learners tend to know the higher-register but lower frequency related terms such as "weaken" or "ruin," precisely because these are lexically dense dictionary headwords.

13. *things:* This is used here as a "general word," and, as such, is a high-frequency item particularly in real-time speech when one is unable to recall a more exact, but perhaps obscure, lexically dense item. It thus serves as a circumlocutionary strategy when searching for a more precise description or word. As intentionally "vague language" (Carter, 1987), it is lexically lighter than may be initially intuited. It has a wide range of uses, particularly where the norms of discourse would render the more precise word as awkward or marked (Halliday & Hasan, 1976).

Student and Teacher Responses

The numbers of items in some of the samples do not total the expected five responses per student for the following reasons:

1. Some students submitted anywhere from two to seven selections rather than the requested five. Where more than five selections were given, only the first five listed were counted.
2. Some selections were clearly longer or shorter than any meaningful lexical category and were thus disqualified (e.g., "*then this coniosporosis*").
3. In some cases, the focus of the selection was not clear (e.g., Does "would have gotten" qualify as "would have -en" or as "get/got"?). In such cases of boundary vagueness, a half point was "awarded" to each item.

Medical Students

As perhaps would be expected, the medical students largely chose lexically dense ideationally based items (those items that appear to offer a meaning that is discrete and corresponds to a clear, content-heavy concept or thing) (see Table 1). The popularity of "*get over*," "*make worse*," and "*coniosporosis*" (75, 70, and 72 selections, respectively) was often related to their perceived utility in the medical field, suggested by numerous comments such as, "This is useful for my future as a doctor."

Table 1: Lexical Selections by Medical Students (*n* = 97)

Item	No.	Item	No.	Item	No.
Well,	10	would (have —en)	42	get/got/gotten	13
get over	75	it	3	damn it	77
this, this . . . this	5	what's it called	19	coniosporosis	72
just	5	went and/go and	5	make — worse	70
things	10	sooner	13	then	3

As shown in Table 1, the major exception to this tendency was "*damn it,*" the item that received the highest overall number of selections (77). It is interesting that this one interpersonal item received more selections than the more concrete lexical phrases. The fact that "*damn it*" was justified with reasons such as, "I didn't know this word" (as was "*coniosporosis*"), indicates that sheer lack of recognition is a salient selection criterion for learners. On the other hand, although "*Well*" is also an interpersonally based item, it received little support (10). "*Well*," despite being more frequent and having a more pronounced discourse function than "*damn it*," may have been ignored largely because students simply recognized the item and believed that recognizing an item equals knowing it, a common misunderstanding.

The same may also be argued for a lexically light item such as "*just*" (5). However, most such high-recognition but low-density, high-frequency/valency items were overlooked by these students. The fact that such items make up the great bulk of English speech (Carter, 1987; Sinclair 1991; Richards, 1974) and act as the workhorses of the language, and that mastery of these items can lead to greater general control in the production of English seems not yet apparent to them.

Returning to those lexically dense items that garnered the most selections, one might expect that after the teacher's explanation, "*coniosporosis*" would have been rightly regarded as arcane terminology with very limited utility and range. But the large number of selections (72) for this item suggests that learners' criteria for selection may be based more upon encyclopedic or taxonomic factors than upon concerns of utility or range. One can speculate from this that ESP students may be attempting to acquire specialized jargon far in advance of having developed a holistic L2 system in which to place that jargon, despite the fact that Arnaud and Savignon (1997) argue that rare words are best learned passively by more advanced speakers, not by a taxonomic list method.

However, a number of students did select "***what's it called***" and "***would*** . . ." (19 and 42, respectively), one a set phrase, the other a lexically light function word. One possible explanation, borne out by the reasons that students offered for their choices, was the understanding that these items matched difficult L1 concepts that they had hitherto struggled with. For example, regarding "***would***" one student wrote, "This word shows possibility and difference from real situation. It says like Japanese ***naotta no ni***. I didn't know to say like that in English." Many recognized a different utility from what they had previously noted.

Regarding "***what's it called***" a student wrote, "If I can't remember name or the word, I can say this in the middle of my sentence. It's like Japanese. We say same things like this."

This reaction may have occurred because the monitor's explicit explanation allowed the subjects to find a useful L1 conceptual frame to peg the item upon. From this example we can see how much more essential an explicit identification of an item's role in the text is to making more informed choices than would be the case if the learners were simply listing "unknown" items from a decontextualized, unanalyzed text.

English Majors

Let's first analyze these results in terms of their similarities to and differences from the information collated from the medical students' selections.

"*Get over*" and "*damn it*" still received a large number of selections (63 and 69, as shown in Table 2) and it seems that for these items the same criterion was applied as by the medical students; that is, that they are easily translatable, readily offering up L1 parallels. Again, many students responded to the effect that "not knowing" the item was the main criterion behind the selection. In other words, most learners appear to see lexical study as a means of decoding (unraveling the meaning of an item) rather than encoding (absorbing more general principles of lexis for future deployment).

Table 2: Lexical Selections by English Majors ($n = 96$)

Item	No.	Item	No.	Item	No.
Well,	5	would have —en	67	get/got/gotten	12
get over	63	it	3	damn it	69
this, this . . . this	28	what's it called	44	coniosporosis	49
just	10	went and/go and	26	make — worse	46
things	9	sooner	16	then	1

I should also add that the anomalous popularity of "*damn it*" (69) appears to stem somewhat from an almost abnormal interest among the learners in learning profanities. One student noted, "This is real English, like native speakers speak." This comment suggests that a perceived difference between "real" English and more stilted, limited forms that they may have studied in the past is largely characterized by profanities. This is a potentially dangerous misconception that needs to be addressed.

Notable differences occurred with, "*this, this . . . this*" and "*just,*" both of which showed marked increases over the number of selections made by the medical students (from 5 to 28 and 5 to 10 respectively). This indicates that English majors are perhaps (not surprisingly) somewhat more aware of their *general* lexical needs, precisely because they are not studying for a specific purpose. As they need not focus so heavily on acquiring jargon as medical students do, English majors appear to be more attracted by language that contains many meaning potentials. Regarding "*just,*" one comment was, "This word has many meanings and I don't know why a native speaker says it so much." Regarding "*this, this . . . this,*" another student wrote, "I can show a confusion feeling when I repeat that word."

Students also recognized that some phrases impart grammatical functions. For example, regarding *"would have,"* one student wrote, "I know this phrase means, but I can't use it well, so I must study it more." In short, the English majors appeared to display slightly more sophisticated metalinguistic insights in their selection criteria although the surprisingly heavy number of selections for *"coniosporosis"* (49) certainly must mitigate the force of this suggestion. One notable difference between the medical students and the English majors regarding the number of selections for *"went and/go and"* (from 5 to 26) is worthy of comment. The teacher who monitored the English majors during the study noted that a specific question regarding this item was raised by a student. This allowed the teacher to provide an interpretation of this item which may have lead this group to become unusually conscious of the item. Thus, after hearing the explanation and realizing that this item contained a force that was quite different from what they might previously have believed, the number of selections for this item increased considerably. One student commented, "I learned that this does not mean 'go out' . . . it shows a helpless feeling of the people." Thus, we may note that explicit explanation of an item can lead to its critical reevaluation by students.

English Teachers

Despite the disparity in sample size, it is no less evident that teachers' choices differed greatly from those of both samples of learners, as shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Lexical Selections by English Teachers ($n = 25$)

Item	No.	Item	No.	Item	No.
Well,	4	would (have —en)	14	get/got/gotten	6
get over	23	it	13	damn it	10
this, this . . . this	8	what's it called	4	coniosporosis	1
just	4	went and/go and	0	make — worse	19
things	1	sooner	2	then	6

Not unsurprisingly *"damn it" and "coniosporosis"* dropped in number from 77 and 69 to 10, and from 72 and 49 to 1 respectively. Of course, teachers are expected to display a greater sense of the range and utility of items than do students (particularly as we have seen with non-English majors). This was apparent in that *"get over"* and *"make . . . worse"* and the lexico-grammatical *"would have . . . en"* were deemed to be far more useful (92, 76 and 14 respectively) than *"damn it"* and *"coniosporosis."*

While many teachers emphasized the necessity of focusing upon phrasal verbs ("They are often not found in the dictionary and students are unaware of them even though they are used regularly by native speakers"), it was notable that other lexical phrases or polywords (*"What's it called," "went and"*) were largely ignored (4 and 0 respectively). Here, like the medical students, teachers seem to have placed more emphasis upon lexically dense, content-based items rather than those items characterized by discursive or interpersonal features. It is particularly noteworthy that English majors seemed to consider the latter items to be more valuable than did teachers. Perhaps these are items that teachers expect students to already "know" based on the recognition value of their individual constituents, whereas the English majors, cognizant of their own struggles with such items and their difficulties in finding a cognate in L1, perceived them as unlearned but useful.

A slight increase in the number of teacher selections compared to learner selections was found for the deictic items (those which make test cohesive by pointing to references), that is, *"this, this . . . this,"* (only for medical students) *"it"* and *"then"* (students: 5 and 28, teachers: 8; students: 3 and 3, teachers: 13; and students: 3 and 1, teachers: 6, respectively). The criteria for selecting such items appeared to have been very precise, as the following teacher explanations indicate:

> Students cannot fully understand how to read, write or speak English properly until they can use these words well.
>
> Such terms are the cohesive skeleton of any text and thus cannot afford to be ignored.

Nonetheless, nondeictic high frequency items that add an interpersonal dimension to the text by serving as pre-sequencers (*"Well"*), softeners/intensifiers (*"just"*), or by marking attitudes (*"went and"*) were roundly ignored (4, 4 and 0 respectively) as was the common general word *"things"* (1) despite its deictic function. Again, one may speculate that this is because teachers believe that students already "know" these "basic" items. However, such a presupposition would be faulty given the wide meaning range and potentials that these items display.

Discussion

Although this study is limited and exploratory, the results suggest that learners often do not make lexical study choices based upon sound principles. We have seen that learners tend to focus upon lexically dense, ideationally based items that offer up more exacting, content-heavy meanings that can be readily decoded. This is in accordance with McCarthy and Carter's (1995) findings. McCarthy (1991) further notes that learners often wrongly equate fixed meanings with fixed lexical patterns in a text. And if one adheres to Pawley and Syder's (1983, p. 203) definition of lexis, as an item in which meaning is not predictable from form, one can fairly conclude that learners tend to choose "vocabulary" rather than lexical items.

However, corpus studies indicate that the type-token ratio of lexically light items is much greater than that of content-heavy dense items and therefore much more crucial to an understanding of discourse (Sinclair, 1991; Richards, 1974). Moreover, lexical density is more a feature of written than of spoken texts (Ure, 1971; Halliday, 1990). Thus, this inordinate emphasis upon lexically dense items may be one reason why learners are apt to speak as if they were walking textbooks (Carter & McCarthy, 1994).

Simply not knowing a word (and one can assume that "knowledge" in this case is closer to "recognition" in meaning) was the most common explanation for such choices. Scholars such as Carter (1987) have drawn up hierarchical criteria of lexical "knowledge," with recognition representing its lowest level. This hierarchy progresses through knowledge of an item's syntagmatic(environmental), paradigmatic (syntactically substitutable), and pragmatic qualities and to the ability to produce, as well as comprehend, the item within idiomatic forms. The fact that learners seem to be satisfied with knowing an item only in its most superficial sense indicates that current approaches to acquiring lexis need to be redressed.

We have also noted that those items which teachers tend to emphasize for future study are at variance with those that learners choose. Because teachers are presumed to have a greater knowledge or intuition of factors such as valency, range and frequency, it is crucial that awareness of such qualities be a salient factor when choosing texts for teaching purposes or when making teaching materials. Teachers should also attempt to impart this knowledge to learners in order to help them make more informed choices by themselves. Learners should not be left to their own lexical devices.

Any success in trying to get learners to master an adequate minimal vocabulary will be largely determined by the type of items that are included, not just their relative frequency (Lewis, 1993). Yet, the limited results of this study also indicated that several lexical categories and features considered central by scholars are often ignored by both teachers and learners. For example, Sinclair and Renouf (1988) argue that discourse markers or items containing pragmatic force, items which carry out the functions of a text, tend to be overlooked by most teachers. This fact too was borne out in this study as we noted that function words, general words, items which have largely interpersonal functions, lexically-light items plus items that have high recognition value but wide range and valency all tend to be under emphasized.

We also noted how the teachers surveyed here tended to overlook features of the text that were of considerable interest to English majors. Thus, it can be suggested that greater teacher awareness of and sensitivity to such items that appear simple by virtue of their individual constituents, yet are confusing to learners due to their wide meaning range or loss of density when appropriated as a lexical unit, are needed. A deeper understanding of the learners' L1, as well as an increase in teachers' understanding of the *functions* of lexis, may be ways of achieving this.

Finally, from these exploratory results, it can be suggested that learner interaction with a text alone does little to influence or guide learners' uninformed choices. Rather, explicit explanation by teachers appears to lead some students to make more informed selections, often by stimulating or challenging students' internal lexicons.

However, the fact that students tend to take a semasiological (word-to-thing) approach to definition, and avoid nomination (the type of definition that flows from thing to word) indicates that they often attempt to acquire lexis out of context, as if the assertion that *"words have meanings"* were a canonical fact of language. Rather, imparting an understanding that, in fact, ***it is meanings that have words*** would likely increase learners' sensitivity to lexical environments. Discrete explanations of "difficult" items alone are insufficient. Rather, tasks that illuminate context and provide frameworks of meaning are indispensable for any in-depth lexical analysis by learners (Willis, 1990).

Conclusion

Although extremely limited and exploratory, this study nonetheless suggests important directions for future research. The results indicate that, in order to develop learners' lexical skills, the choice of lexical items for analysis or study should not be left up to the individual learner, but rather deliberately and explicitly guided and monitored by teachers. Furthermore, teachers must also become more aware of the varied roles and functions of lexis, and in doing so separate it from the more limited category of "vocabulary." In moving towards a more lexically-based syllabus, both teachers and learners can become more aware of how lexis interacts with its linguistic environment, serves interpersonal and social functions, enables structures to cohese/cohere and provides signals for understanding the force of utterances. By becoming more aware of and ultimately being able to impart the centrality of lexis, teachers will be providing learners with tools that will serve as a strong foundation for almost any dimension of second language acquisition.

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(Received September 9, 1998; revised August 30, 1999)

Perspectives

"The Eyes of *Hito*": A Japanese Cultural Monitor of Behavior in the Communicative Language Classroom

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This paper suggests that Japanese students' sensitivity to *bito* (person, people, group), or the third-person "other," can result in a disengaged student in the EFL classroom, one who resists communicative language approaches. It explains how *bito* is enculturated in the Japanese self and monitors the self's behavior and suggests ways that the foreign EFL teacher, aware of *bito*'s influence on the student, can conduct classes with sensitivity to the cultural issues described in this paper.

日本人学習者には「人の目を意識する」という文化的な要因があり、それがコミュニカティブなアプローチに抵抗を感じさせると著者は論じる。著者は、「人意識」という現象がどのようにして日本人の「自己」の一部となるか、そして「人」が日本人の「自己」にどんな影響を及ぼすかということを説明する。終りに、著者は「日本人の『自己』に対する『人』」の影響を理解している外国人教師のために適当な教授法を推薦する。

As part of the counseling aspect of Community Language Learning (CLL)[1] my students write anonymously about their experience in class. These writings serve as the basis for group discussions about issues that the students are most concerned with. Over the years of using CLL I have noticed that an undercurrent flows within these papers, a theme that echoes the "certain restraints and inhibitions" that Miller (1995) has suggested are a result of his English as a foreign language (EFL) students' "social upbringing and prior English study experiences" (p. 46).

The theme at first seemed diffuse. Some students noted their reluctance to initiate a conversation in English because "(another student) might not understand me and that would cause her trouble." Many remarked that they were reluctant to express opinions because they were concerned with, "how the other (students) would feel" should they believe differently. Some worried that the conversation "might stop because (they) could not speak English well." Others were loath to begin a conversation because their topic might be "insignificant." Many were afraid that their pronunciation might "sound funny." Some were concerned with speaking in English after "the other students stayed in Japanese." Still more expressed the "fear of making a mistake."

When I read the following comment, written by a second-year women's junior college student in her second year of CLL (approximately the fortieth week of a sixteen-month period), these threads wove themselves into a recognizable pattern. My translation (see Appendix 1 for the student's Japanese original) contains Romanized words and expressions and "literal" English translations to support my interpretation.

> When speaking in front of other people (*hitomae de*) I deliberately pronounced English with a Japanese accent and made a lot of grammatical errors. I didn't want to be thought of (by people), "Who does she think she is" (*Kakko tsuketen ja ne yo*)? I'm really sensitive about what others think of me (*yappari, mawari no me wa kowai*; lit., the eyes around me are frightening). Today, when I was trying to pronounce the sentence, "After I graduate. . ." I got flustered; I was relieved when you said, "Don't worry about whether people (in your group) are angry because you can't get the pronunciation down right; every time you and I repeat it, it's good listening practice for them." After hearing that, I thought, boy, next time I'm in the conversation corner I'm going to express myself even more. You can learn English vocabulary and grammar by studying alone; but to overcome what other people think of you (*hito no me no kokufuku*; lit., to conquer the eyes of *hito*), and to stop feeling embarrassed and stuff about speaking in English, there isn't a better place to practice than the conversation corner.

The phrase, *hitomae de* (in front of other people) could have been omitted, as "when speaking" implies an audience. However "the others" implied by *hitomae de* are not superfluous to the student; she refers to these "others" elsewhere in her paper (*mawari no me, hito no me*) as the source of her anxiety.

The student even speculated in Japanese about what one of the "others" would say if she used fluent English, "Who does she think she is?" (*Kakko tsuketen ja ne yo*) or more literally "(You) should not appear to be what you are not." The "literal" translation does not convey the import of the student's choice of language. First speaking the local dialect when quoting the "other," she shifted to a slang variety that has a menacing undertone in the Tokyo dialect, which her native Kochi "country" people regard as socially superior.

But who is this *hito*, the other that the student is so sensitive to?

Hito: the Personification of an Aspect of Japanese Culture

Geertz (1973) wrote, "Becoming human is becoming individual, and we become individual under the guidance of cultural patterns, historically created systems of meaning in terms of which we give form, order, point, and direction to our lives" (p. 52). *Hito*, the Japanese word for person, is the personification of certain historically-created Japanese systems of meaning that guide the Japanese social self in the direction that Japanese culture has deemed meaningful.

Lebra (1976) wrote that the Japanese are preoccupied with "'social' objects, namely, other human beings, *hito* in Japanese" (p. 2). She described the Japanese self as "consist(ing) of continuous reflexivity between performance by self and sanctions by the audience" (Lebra, 1992, p. 106), and noted that the number of Japanese words that describe *seken* [2] (society, i.e., the collective *hito*), and the physical attributes that the culture has given *hito*, "contributes to the sense of immediacy and inescapability of the *seken*'s presence" (Lebra, 1992, p. 107).

Lebra did not imply that *hito* is unique; *hito* functions the same way that the ambiguous, third-person "other" does in North American cultures (Johnstone, 1996; Rothstein, 1993). *Hito*, however, has a greater degree of influence on the Japanese self than the other has on the North American self. Why? Because the historically created systems of meaning in Japan's "tight culture" differ from those in North America's "loose culture" (Triandis, 1985, p. 23). As Markus and Kitayama (1994, p. 102) explained,

> the goal (of Japanese enculturation) is not individual awareness, experience, and expression, but rather some attunement or alignment of one's reactions and actions with those of another, and intersubjective experience is a result of these efforts and, in turn, fosters these efforts.

This intersubjective[3] experience "cultivates a sense of self . . . as a group member and as a person in society" who places the needs of the group over those of the individual (Tobin, 1991, p. 18; cf. Tobin, 1992, p. 35). This is a goal that the North American self, having developed in a "culturally fostered autonomy" (Roland, 1988, p. 100), may find difficult to accept. Kotloff (1996, pp. 98-99), for example, in her study of a Japanese preschool, wrote that the emphasis of the group over the individual "conflicted with my instincts as an American and as a former teacher." She concluded her article, however, with the understanding that this emphasis nurtures individuality to accomplish group goals.[4]

Sato (1996) posed a question that is germane here: "Can group orientation[5] and individualism be distinguished, as they are in Western thought?" (p. 119). No, they cannot, because the Japanese concepts of "group and individual are not dialectically opposed, as in American thought" (Rohlen & LeTendre, 1996b, p. 76). This is a point that Kondo (1990) amplified:

> The (Japanese) self is fundamentally interrelated with others and to understand the Japanese sense of self requires dissolving the self/other or self/society boundary that is such an obvious starting point in all Western formulations of the self[6] (cited in Markus & Kitayama, 1994, p. 97).

So what does this have to do with the student who pretended that she could not speak English well? This student suppressed her ability to speak English like a native speaker, placing the needs of her fellow students, the group, over her desire to speak English naturally. Why? Because to cause the others to think that she was "better" at English than they were would violate the intersubjective experience that self has with the other. This is the Japanese notion of empathy. "In America, empathy is shown by giving Alter (i.e., the other) freedom to make up his mind, while Japanese empathy refers to anticipating and taking care of Alter's wants" (Lebra, 1976, p. 40). Alter, the other for this student, does not want her to speak English well.

A Caveat

This student's short paragraph is only one comment, and my interpretations and supporting evidence reflect only one person's perception. However, as Barnlund (1975) suggests, "the issue . . . is not whether cultural generalizations account for every act of every person, but whether they help to explain the meaning of many or most social events" (p. ix).

The student's comments reflect social events, perceptions, and issues that are remarkably similar to those noted by other writers (Asano, 1995; McVeigh, 1997; Nishijima, 1995; Nozaki, 1993; Okada, 1996; Otani, 1995; Ryan, 1995; Sasaki, 1996; Torikai, 1996; Toyota, 1995). Furthermore, if these comments are an anomaly, it is difficult to reconcile the similarities between them and remarks that a young Japanese television personality made during a program about English language learning:

> Pronouncing English like a native English speaker is kind of embarrassing; *you are laughed at by people around you* (*mawari no hito nimo warawareru*). But, gosh, if you worry about things like that, you're never going to get good at English. What I want to say is, let's stop teasing people who are trying to sound like native English speakers' (Torikai, 1996, p. 5).

Another similarity between the case represented here and the television personality's comment can be found in the original Japanese. In both comments two passive clauses (italicized in the student's comments and in the above quote) place the other as the agent ("I didn't want to be thought [odd] by people") and "you are laughed at by people around you." Researchers have suggested that Japanese often use passive clauses to indicate that they have suffered from the action of another (Kuwayama, 1992; Lebra, 1976; Takenaga, 1991). Here, the audience around the self, *hito*, has threatened to ridicule the self's attempts at natural pronunciation.

Enculturation of *Hito*

Understanding the way *hito* is enculturated in the Japanese self can help prevent the foreign teacher from unwittingly creating the "schism" that Kemp (1995) described as, "a cleavage between students' half-intuited English class expectations and a new and baffling foreign teacher-imposed reality totally unrelated to any of their past experience" (p. 11).

The Japanese mother uses *hito* to strengthen the mother-child relationship (Lebra, 1976; Markus & Kitayama, 1994). Anderson (1993) referred to it as the "unidentified, seemingly ubiquitous 'someone'"(p. 104) that Japanese mothers call on to discipline their children. The Japanese mother praises her child for good behavior; she disciplines, however, through *hito*. *Hito* may be invisible to the child, as in "*You are laughable.*" *Hito*, however, may be tangible: The "bad" child may be subject to "*teasing, ridicule, and embarrassment* (emphasis added) . . . . laughed at or ridiculed by (those) whose opinion the child values most" (Lebra, 1976, p. 152). Consequently, the Japanese child regards *hito* ominously: "the third party plays an indispensable role in inducing shame among Japanese" (Lebra, 1976, p. 221).

Hito becomes the "constant . . . group context" in which the Japanese self defines itself (Rohlen & LeTendre, 1996a, p. 10). The infant's awareness of *hito* is strengthened in a succession of group contexts.[8] Kotloff's (1996) study, for example, shows how children are taught to find satisfaction in group effort. Tsuchida and Lewis (1996) discuss how this proclivity is encouraged in primary school. First-graders are taught "that there is often a *single* right way of doing things" in their school activities (p. 195).

Sato (1996) and Fukuzawa (1996) have discussed how teachers use the other to discipline students. Lewis (1996) also noted how the other is invoked to "mask the conflict between the desires of child and teacher" in a Japanese elementary school:

> Discipline appealed to feelings. Teachers made comments such as "If you break that hat, your mother will cry," "Your pencil-*san* will feel

> miserable if you peel it," "Your pianica (piano-harmonica) is crying" (to a girl about to drop her pianica), and "Please behave properly on Parents' Day. *If you don't, the parents won't laugh at you, they'll laugh at me* (italics added)" (p. 90).

Sato (1996) has suggested that primary school students' actions are constantly monitored by the group: "Going to school means togetherness, for better and for worse" (p. 138). This togetherness is further developed through *hansei*,[9] group reflection sessions (and/or essays) in which students learn that, "just as there is a 'correct' lifestyle, so there are 'correct' emotions[10] for particular events" (Fukuzawa, 1996, p. 308). Peak (1991) described *hansei* in these words,

> Once a task has been executed, evaluation, or *hansei*, is a typical ritualized final step in the process. Group activities, ranging from daily cleaning of the classroom to the yearly class trip, end with a formal student-led period of *hansei*. Remedial pedagogy and discipline both focus on trying to get the student to reflect on and understand his or her inappropriate behavior and to develop an independent ability for self-evaluation (p. 107).

Where does this "pedagogy and discipline" come from? What is this "inappropriate behavior?" Sato (1996) stressed that student "peer supervision and self-supervision form an integral part of authority and control mechanisms at work in Japanese schools" (p. 138). The students, however, do not spontaneously create these notions; they are culturally transmitted:

> *hansei* was therefore a powerful mechanism of control as well; teachers had the power to observe and respond to the students' reflections and to make the students rewrite or rethink their responses. Undoubtedly, students felt pressure not only to be honest in their reflections but also to conform to adult expectations (Sato, 1996, p. 132).

Hansei is the vital element in what Rohlen (1996) called "spiritual training" (*seishin kyoiku*) (p. 50). This training encourages students to adhere to "teachers' examples and group standards" and discourages "nonconformity (which) is viewed as disruptive of group unity and a sign of character weakness" (Rohlen, 1996, p. 73).

Applying This Information to EFL Classrooms

Behavior that disrupts group unity may result in the schism that Kemp (1995) described. When a teacher asks a student to perform in a way that risks group disapproval, the student may resort to avoidance strategies similar to the "unresponsiveness" and "lack of spontaneity" that

Nozaki (1993, p. 28) reported and, if pressed, refuse to participate (as Lebra, 1976, explained in a different context).

Thus, the best way to avoid disrupting group unity is to design activities that involve the entire class in a group context. Akita (1995, p. 51) wrote that "Japanese may act extremely shy individually, but in a group they can act extrovertly." Miller (1995, p. 43), for example, realizing that asking open questions to the class did not elicit spontaneous responses, singled out students to answer. The students balked initially, but soon acknowledged, as one student wrote, "it becomes a group thing, so that's fine" (p. 44).

Izumi (1995, p. 10) had her students debate successfully by having groups of students present and defend their arguments, thus "better accommodat[ing the debate format to] Japanese people's cultural behavior." Miller (1995) also required his students to make short "extemporaneous" speeches but allowed them to prepare the speeches in advance. Although not truly spontaneous, the speeches were successful in that the students practiced a difficult activity through a "procedure (that) seemed well-suited to Japanese sensibilities" (p. 44).

Of course, students tend to be more receptive when they know in advance what their teacher expects of them. For example on the first day of his course, Tomei (1996) distributed a detailed handout that explained the aims of the course, his policy on grading, homework, and absences, and included a list of supplementary material. He notes that a colleague made a similar handout into a quiz that the students had to pass with a perfect score before they could join the class.

Thus, it is advisable to give students the course syllabus on the first day of class and copies of the lesson plan at the beginning of each class, including the time frame for all activities. When students see what is expected of them, it is likely that they will fall into a rhythm, their anxiety will decrease, and they will become more motivated. For example, Hunter (1995, p. 5) succeeded in having his students ad lib situations because he knew that "repetition of a task can contribute to the lowering of inhibitions, the encouragement of risk-taking, and the building of self-confidence."

Izumi (1995) suggests that "the fear of being laughed at by peers because of mistakes or the use of unrefined English may make students shy" (p. 10). Throughout this paper, passages from student comments indicate how ridicule inhibits self-expression. The first student wanted "to stop feeling embarrassed" when she spoke in English and was leery of ridicule. The television personality warned that natural English pronunciation provokes laughter from those around the speaker, supporting Lebra's contention that children may be subject to "teasing, ridicule, and embarrassment. . . . laughed at or ridiculed by (those) whose opinion the child values most" (Lebra, 1976, p. 152). The teacher used the threat of laughter to discipline a grade-school student (Lewis, 1996, p. 90). Finally, Markus and Kitayama's (1994) present the following example: "Kazuo, you are acting very strange; your friends may laugh at you if they see it" (p.115).

The issue of laughter is very complicated and requires further research. What, for example, causes students to laugh in a particular teacher's classroom? What is the reaction of the students who are the object of laughter? Is the laughter meant to be derisive? Or is the laughter meant to be empathetic, to release tension? Is the activity the source of the tension? If so, how could the activity be modified to reduce the amount of tension? Questions like these indicate the complexity of the issue. They also indicate, however, the need for teachers to be aware. Listen to the laughter in your classroom, determine its type and source, and find a way to avoid negative sources in the future.

Conclusion

Human emotions are essentially universal (Erchak, 1992; Geertz, 1973; Lebra, 1992). Nonetheless, we must acknowledge that "each culture's values about emotions and their expression may come to affect the essential experience (and the expression and, ultimately, the definition) of that emotion" (Ellsworth, 1994, p. 40). From this perspective we can understand that the Japanese *hito* may, indeed, be generally similar to the Western "other." However, we can also understand that the essential experience that the Japanese self has with *hito* is much closer than the essential experience that the Western self has with the monitor of its behavior.

Culture consists of symbols, like the word *hito*, and the readiness with which we accept these symbols, and the emotions that they elicit in our students, depends on how familiar we are with the symbols and the emotions that the symbols evoke.

Acknowledgments

Thanks are due to the reviewers, who I hope will see in this revised version my gratitude for their conscientiousness in reviewing the original article.

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Notes

1. CLL is an approach to language learning in which the bilingual teacher uses counseling techniques to alleviate the anxiety students feel toward speaking in foreign languages (Curran, 1972). The connection of CLL with the argument in this paper is that the approach places students in situations in which the effects of *hito* are more apparent than in approaches that are designed to compensate for *hito*'s influence; consequently, student re[illegible] that deal with *hito* are common. The "conversation corner" that the student refers to in her report is a CLL activity.
2. Lebra (1992) listed more synonyms of *seken*, and their English equivalents, with the caveat that the English words "do not fully convey the (Japanese) self's sensitivity to interactional immediacy and vulnerability entailed in the Japanese terms" (p. 106). Kuwayama (1992) listed three levels of the "other": *mawari* (people around), *hito* (people at large), and *seken*, (society). The three levels are concentrically related to the self (*jibun*) at the center (p. 122).
3. For the differences between independent and interdependent notions of self, see Kim and Sharkey (1995); for child-raising practices that inculcate these differences, see Barnlund (1975), Erchak (1992), Lebra (1976), Markus and Kitayama (1994), Morsbach (1980), and Rosenberger (1992).
4. Kotloff's article explains how the interdependent Japanese culture pays more attention to the emotional needs of its members as individuals than do cultures that stress individualistic ideals, a point that Frijda and Mesquita (1994) have also made (see also Sato, 1996).
5. Sato's (1996) conception of Japanese social behavior as "relations oriented" (p. 119) correlates with Lebra's notion of social preoccupation. To distance her concept (and, by extension, Lebra's) from group-oriented stereotypes, Sato noted that these social relations may be a single person, one's self-image, or the social environment. Compare this with Lebra (1976): "Japanese individuality...rests not on the imposition of one's will on the social environment but on the refusal to impose oneself on it" (p. 43). Similarly, Singleton (1991) wrote that Japanese culture inculcates, "the messages of *shudan ishiki* (group consciousness). Exclusive group solidarity and commitment are part of the real (or hidden) curriculum of the educational process" (pp. 122-123). Singleton further explained, however, that the emphasis on group consciousness does not suppress the Japanese sense of the individual.
6. Compare this with Smith (1983): "the identification of self and other is always indeterminate in the sense that there is no fixed center from which...the (Japanese) individual asserts a noncontingent existence" (p. 81). Also see the essays in Bachnik and Quinn (1994).
7. Torikai (1996) noted that the television personality was in her early twenties and remarked on her youth and her sensitivity to *hito*'s ridicule: "*kore wa masashiku, jidai wo koeta 'Nihonjinrashisa' to ieru*" (this is a clear example of "Japaneseness" that transcends generations; my translation) (p. 6). Compare this with Nozaki (1993): "Beneath a deceptively Westernized veneer,

(Japanese students') core values remain traditionally Japanese" (p. 27).

8. Markus and Kitayama (1994) wrote that Japanese parents believe the preschool's "duty (is) to teach group living" (p. 115; a similar suggestion is found in Rohlen & LeTendre, 1996a, p. 6). Tobin (1991) noted that the preschool child learns to, "cultivate a sense of self . . . as a group member and as a person in society" (p. 18; also see Tobin, 1992, p. 35, and Rosenberger, 1992: "The crafting of selves embedded in reciprocal relationship" [p. 13].). Finkelstein (1991) wrote that preschool education does not rob children of their individuality; rather it, "help(s) them acquire a more group-oriented, outward-facing sense of self than they received in the first three years of life" (p. 78; also see Kotloff, 1996, p. 111). Lewis (1991) explained this, "as orientation to seek mutual benefit rather than individual benefit when the two conflict" (p. 82). Peak (1991) wrote that Japanese preschool education is, "foreign to American cultural beliefs about appropriate educational goals" (p. 98). However Kotloff (1996) noted that these are "collective goals (that) are central to life in Japan–the desire to work for the sake of the group and the capacity to gain satisfaction from doing so" (p. 99). Thus, in the Japanese preschool, "with (its) large (teacher-student) ratios and large classes . . . children are most likely to get the chance to interact intensively with other children and to learn *shakaisei* (social consciousness) and *shudan seikatsu* (group life)" (Tobin, Wu, & Davidson, 1991, p. 115; also see Tobin 1992, pp. 25, 31).
9. Fukuzawa (1996) noted that *hansei* "may be translated as 'reflection,' but (the Japanese word *hansei*) has overtones of self-criticism and confession measured against the yardstick of socially defined norms of behavior and emotions" (p. 308).
10. Fukuzawa (1996) acknowledges the contributions of Catherine Lewis (1991; 1996) to the notion of "correct" emotions.

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(Received March 15,1998; revised November 10, 1999)

Helping Novice EFL/ESL Academic Writers Appreciate English Textual Patterns through Summary Writing

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When learning how to write academic English essays, EFL/ESL learners often find it difficult to appreciate the value of textual patterns. They tend to perceive the patterns as rules controlling them rather than as tools facilitating their growth as writers. In helping EFL/ESL writers dispel such a negative notion of textual patterns, this study suggests that teaching summarization is effective. In this paper, I will discuss how summary writing activities using satellite English TV news items can be exploited in teaching textual patterns. I will also report on the results of a series of summary writing lessons conducted in a class of ESL writers at the upper-intermediate level.

英文学術論文の書き方を学ぶ際、英語学習者(EFL/ESL writers)は論文に用いるテキストの展開パターンに違和感を覚えることがしばしばある。学習者はこれらのパターンをライティングの手助けというよりも彼らを縛り付けるルールとして受け止めがちである。本論では、学習者の抱くテキストの展開パターンへの否定的なイメージを取り除くことに、サマリー・ライティングが効果があることを論ずる。まず、衛星放送英語ニュースを活用したサマリー・ライティングをどのようにしてテキスト展開パターンを教える際に用いるかを論じる。さらに中上級(upper-intermediate)用コースで実際に行った一連のサマリー・ライティング授業の結果について報告する。

When teachers introduce novice EFL/ESL writers of academic writing to textual patterns commonly exploited in English written discourse, they like to entertain the idea that by teaching such patterns, they are imparting a set of "tools" (Cornwell & McKay, 1998, p. 16) that would facilitate students' writing and thinking. Contrary to teachers' expectations, however, students often perceive these patterns as a set of rules that inhibit their growth and creativity as writers. Hildenbrand (cited in Krapels, 1990), for example, who "daily observed her Spanish-speaking subject write in two community college courses" found that "the subject's preferred writing mode–creative, personal writing–conflicted with

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the academic mode expected of her, thereby hindering her writing process" (p. 42). Similarly, Easton (cited in Kobayashi, 1984, p. 115) and Inghilleri (1989, p. 401) reported on ESL writers' "resistance" to exploiting the English textual patterns expected of them.

Like the subjects in the above studies, some of my own students–high school seniors at the high-intermediate level–complained to me during one lesson on paragraph organization and patterns that they were already capable of freely expressing themselves and that they did not need any textual patterns to help them. Though I could have responded to their claim by abandoning the teaching of all patterns to "respect" their personal style of writing, I did not because I believe that such English rhetorical conventions are important for writing any kind of English text. In fact, recent studies provide evidence that native speakers exploit specific textual patterns for encoding and decoding meaning of written texts (Carrell, 1987; Connor & McCagg, 1983; Hoey, 1983; Ramanathan & Kaplan, 1996; Reid, 1996). This suggests that if EFL/ESL writers are to express meaning clearly to a native-speaker audience, they need to embed it within rhetorical conventions commonly used by native speakers (Hoey, 1983; Inghilleri, 1989). Unless they do so, they risk being misunderstood by them (Hoey, 1983; Inghilleri, 1989), failing to fulfill native-speaker readers' expectations (Ramanathan & Kaplan, 1996; Reid, 1996). Clearly the solution to the problem was not to abandon the teaching of textual patterns, but to teach them in a way they would be appreciated by the students. To do so, I reintroduced the patterns by giving my students summary writing lessons.

Why Teach Summary Writing?

Previous studies have indicated that summarization is one of the most important writing skills required outside EFL/ESL classrooms (Campbell, 1990; Horowitz 1986; Kirkland & Saunders, 1991; Leki & Carson 1997; Spack, 1988). Moreover, a study by Connor and McCagg (1983) suggests that summary writing may be effective for teaching textual patterns to nonnative English speaking writers. They compared immediate recall paraphrases of a source text written by native-speaker and ESL writers and report that paraphrases written by ESL writers "appear[ed] to be inhibited or constrained by the structure of the original passage" (Connor & McCagg, 1983, p. 267). As a result, Connor and McCagg (1983) suggest that instructors take advantage of this tendency of ESL writers to teach them English rhetorical conventions by giving them paraphrasing tasks similar to the ones in their study. In short, Connor and McCagg's (1983) study indicates that the whole "process of putting someone else's material" (Walker, 1997, p. 128) into one's own words through paraphrasing or summarizing may be conducive to teaching English textual patterns to EFL/ESL learners.

The present study attempts to put Connor and McCagg's suggestion into practice, as so far no study has attempted using summarization to teach textual patterns to EFL/ESL writers. This study makes two modifications to Connor and McCagg's original conception. First, it focuses on summaries rather than paraphrases. Though both paraphrases and summaries are means of restating other people's words or ideas (Walker, 1997), the latter seem more useful in teaching textual patterns than the former. Whereas paraphrases need not be shorter than the original (Walker, 1997) but simply a reproduction of "the exact sense of a written passage or oral statement" (Walker, 1997, p. 120; Connor & McCagg, 1983), summaries are condensed versions of the originals, including only the main ideas with specific information eliminated (Walker, 1997). For this reason, it is suggested that summary writing better serves the purpose of this study–teaching textual features of the original texts–than paraphrase writing.

Second, unlike Connor and McCagg's study, which instructed subjects to write immediate paraphrase protocols based on their memory of the given source text, the present study allows subjects to use several words, phrases, or both from the source texts in their summaries. This decision was made to help writers become more acquainted with the whole idea of "writing from other texts" (Spack, 1988, p. 41) and "to develop better awareness and skill in using information from background reading texts and acknowledging that text's author" (Campbell, 1990, p. 226).

Method

Participants

The participants were 34 upper-intermediate high school seniors taught by the researcher at a private Japanese high school. Except for two non-returnee students, all were English-speaking returnees who had studied at least two years in English-speaking countries, schools, or both. Before learning about summary writing, the students studied the basic skills of writing one-paragraph essays using a textbook called *Basic English Paragraphs* (Kitao & Kitao, 1992). These skills included writing topic sentences, linking subsequent sentences with the topic sentences, writing outlines, and using transitions. In addition, the students learned basic paragraph patterns such as description, illustration, contrast, and cause-and-effect. Each paragraph pattern opened with a topic sentence followed by the body of the paragraph, that is, detailed information relevant to the topic sentence. In a one-paragraph essay, the body was usually followed by the conclusion of the paragraph. If, however, the paragraph was a component of a long article or a chapter of a book, the conclusion was usually omitted. Thus, in a descriptive one-paragraph essay, for example, the body included "the actual description" (Kitao & Kitao, 1992, p. 31) of the subject that was introduced in the topic sentence and the conclusion summarized or restated the subject mentioned in the topic sentence. The students familiarized themselves with these textual patterns by working on analysis questions in the workbook, which required them to find key elements in a paragraph, such as topic sentences, bodies, and conclusions from sample paragraphs written in simple English. Later, the students wrote undocumented one-paragraph essays for homework based on examples or facts from their own experience, using the skills and textual patterns learned in class.

Materials

Source texts used in this study were British and U.S. satellite TV news items for students to write their summaries. Japan's copyright law permits teachers to use foreign news programs aired by Japanese broadcasters for nonprofit purposes (Azuma, 1998). By the time a Japanese broadcaster airs a program made by a foreign producer it has compensated the producer for the use of copyrighted material (McIntyre, 1996, p. 123). Taking advantage of this fact, I chose to use news items for the following two reasons. First, their use in EFL/ESL classes often increases student motivation (Morrison, 1989). Second, unlike most written texts used for summary writing, such as print media and academic journals, satellite TV news items are accompanied by visual cues that could lighten the cognitive load of summary writers (Kirkland & Saunders, 1991) and facilitate their comprehension of the texts. Of course, this does not mean that any news item can be used for teaching summarization. In some news items, visual images have no connection with the news script (Meinhof, 1994); and this mismatch of the script and the visual images, or "double encoding"(Meinhof, 1998, p. 25), may become a source of confusion for a nonnative speaker audience (Meinhof, 1998). Thus, instructors are advised to carefully choose their materials.

The recorded and transcribed materials were five American and British TV news items from NHK's Satellite Channel 7. Two were from *BBC Six O'Clock News*, two from *ABC World News Now*, and one from *CNN Headline News*. All news items lasted about two to three minutes; the transcripts of the news items were each about 250-520 words long. All news items were topics familiar to the students: the Japanese Imperial couple's visit to Wales, new cancer-killing chemicals, India's second nuclear tests, violence on TV, and new types of computer games. Showing news items with familiar topics, which promote students' use of their "content schemata" (Kirkland & Saunders, 1991, p. 108), should enhance students' comprehension, making summary writing easier for them. Each transcript was accompanied by a listening activities worksheet.

The worksheet included two types of listening exercises designed to highlight the gist of the news item and vocabulary or expressions unfamiliar to the students. One type of exercise required students to listen for missing sentences or phrases needed to fill gaps created in the text: the lead, other passages or phrases of the news describing the main points of the news, or both. The other required students to answer listening comprehension questions by circling the appropriate answer from among four alternatives after hearing relevant portions of the news item.

Procedures

Class Listening Activities

Treatment consisted of five 45-minute listening lessons. At the beginning of the first lesson, the students studied a basic generic feature of English TV news items: that the lead of a news item usually provides the summary of what is to follow. Once this point was clarified each lesson proceeded in the following manner. First, the students received a worksheet and were shown the news item of the day once, watching it without taking any notes. From the second viewing they were encouraged to take notes so they could start working on the two exercises in their worksheet. In the fill-in-the-gap exercise they listened to a missing phrase or passage from the news item a few words at a time. After listening to that portion of the news item several times, volunteers shared what they understood. These comments were written on the board if correct. If incorrect, the students again listened to the passage several times until somebody in the class could give the correct answer. Once the missing elements were in place, difficult expressions or grammar and the main points of the passage were explained. Then the students listened to the passage again to allow them to review what they had heard. For the listening comprehension questions they again listened to the relevant sections of the news items several times. Later, they listened to those sections once more to help them check their answers.

Summary-Writing Preparation Lessons

The five listening lessons were followed by two 45-minute summary-writing preparatory lessons. In the first lesson, the students received the full transcript of a *BBC Six O'Clock News* item about the Japanese Imperial couple's visit to Wales (Rogers, 1998). By then, they were already familiar with the main passages of the transcript since they had studied those passages in the listening activities. The students then skimmed through the transcript and discussed in pairs which of the patterns (description, contrast, or cause-and-effect) best described the news. The teacher monitored the discussions and provided help when needed. About fifteen minutes later, one student gave the correct answer, contrast. Because the student was too shy to give his reasons, the teacher provided support for this answer on his behalf. The students also received a one-paragraph summary of the news item written by the teacher (Appendix A). After reading it aloud, the teacher told the students that a summary of a news item is usually made up of two parts: a brief description of the lead and a focused topical description of the news item. The lead is the introductory sentence of a news item which provides answers to some questions the audience of the news item bring to the task of reading or listening to it: What happened? Who is/are involved? Where did the news happen? When did it happen? Why did it happen? How did it happen? The explanation emphasized that students needed to exploit two textual patterns for these two parts of the summary to be included in one paragraph.

In the case of this summary, the students were taught that the introduction (the summary of the lead) exploited the description pattern and the passage following it, the contrast pattern (the discussion of the differences existing between two or more people, things, places, or ideas). Further instruction showed that by using the contrast textual pattern, the summary could include two examples of contrast manifested in the news item. The first contrast referred to the types of labor the former POWs of the Japanese Imperial Army and the present Welsh community experienced with the Japanese: the former in prison camps, the latter in electronics companies. The second contrast referred to how the Imperial couple was greeted by these two parties. To point out the second contrast, students were asked to recall scenes from the news that showed the former POWs protesting against the Imperial couple *outside* Wales' Cardiff castle, where *inside* the castle, Welsh dignitaries were holding a ceremony welcoming them. The students were told that these visual images reinforced the message conveyed in the news soundtrack.

In the second summary-preparatory class, the four other news items were analyzed in a manner similar to the first. However, this time there was no instruction to study the transcript handouts due to time limitations, and the students did not receive summaries of these transcripts. In reviewing each news item, they were asked to recall keywords or scenes that justified the use of a certain pattern to be exploited in summarizing the text. After that, an outline on the board served to illustrate the main points of the news item. By this time, the first-term final exam involving writing summaries of two news items out of four chosen by each student had been announced. Each summary had to meet specific requirements. It had to be well-organized and about 150 words in length. Furthermore, it had to include seven to thirteen words, phrases, or both from the news script. The meanings and usage of these words and phrases were explained in previous lessons. The students did not have to memorize these words and phrases since they were printed on their exam sheet. All they needed to do prior to the exam was to remember how these words or phrases should be used in their summaries. To prepare for the exam, the students were encourage to thoroughly read the transcripts of the news items they planned to summarize and to practice writing their summaries using the outlines introduced to them in class.

Summary Writing and Post-Writing Lessons

About a week later, the students took their exam and wrote their summaries. They were instructed to underline all words and phrases they were required to use in the summaries to indicate fulfillment of one of the task requirements.

After the summer break, the students received the summaries of the four news items written by the teacher. Among them were two versions of one summary (Appendix B). The first version was a plain summary, similar to the ones the students wrote. The second was similar to the first version but included quotation marks around every borrowed phrase in the news transcript, a parenthetical citation after every borrowed phrase, an opening sentence explicating "the pragmatic condition of the task: 'This article was about . . .'" (Connor & McCagg, 1983, p. 264), and phrases introducing reported speech: "According to," ". . . say(s)," and ". . . suggested." After pointing out the contrasting features of the two versions of the summary, the students were told that summaries written for U.S. colleges have to include the features of the second version in their summaries. By contrasting the two summaries (Willis & Willis, 1996), the students experienced firsthand what is meant by "borrowed words from other source texts" and saw how these words should be acknowledged in their essays. Lectures and exercises on specific rules of documentation according to the Modern Language Association style and how to write multiparagraph research papers followed this explanation. Later, the students each wrote one documented research paper. By then, they were already familiar with the fact that a text can be made up of a combination of more than two textual patterns and thus needed no further encouragement to combine textual patterns in writing their multiparagraph research papers.

Results and Discussion

The summaries were graded according to three criteria. First, were all the required words or phrases used in the appropriate context? Second, did the summaries include the key information of the news item? Third, did summaries keep to the content of the news item? Ten points were given for each summary that met these criteria. Spelling mistakes and grammatical errors were overlooked as long as the three criteria were met.

Students whose summaries met these three criteria received a total of 20 points. Out of 34 students, 16 received full marks (see Appendix C for two examples). The rest of the students received marks ranging from 19 points to four. Points were deducted from these students' summaries according to four criteria. One point was deducted if a required word or phrase was not used in the appropriate context. For example, one student wrote "Monopoly and Packman are classic games and they RESURRECT (a required word) some adult." Yet, in the original, this required word was used as a synonym for the word "revive," to suggest that companies are trying to market old but famous games as new computer games. Second, one point was deducted if the main point of the original news piece was distorted by a word or a phrase used in the summary. For example, one student wrote "One doctor is hopeful because he believes that this whole new approach can solve the problem of growing back cells." However, the original discussed the fact that this doctor is hopeful because his new approach will help prevent cancer cells from growing back. Third, five points were deducted if a summary was less than 100 words long, even if it included all the required words or phrases. Fourth, 10 points were deducted if a student failed to write the entire summary.

As a result, five students received 19 points, three received 17 points, two received 16 points and three received 13, 12, and 11 points respectively. There were only five students who received less than ten points.

Many students also borrowed other words, phrases, or both from the source texts, which may be the reason why their summaries seemed more sophisticated (Campbell, 1990) compared to their previous essays. In passing, it should also be noted that the summaries written by the two non-returnee students were among the best (see Sample 2 in Appendix C).

In addition to writing summaries, 34 students also answered a questionnaire which asked how helpful they thought summarizing English news items was. On a scale of one (not helpful) to five (very helpful) 14 students gave a five, 15 gave a four, four gave a three, and one gave a two. These results suggest that most students felt that summary writing was rather helpful. Eight students noted that summary writing was difficult for them; nonetheless, five of these students felt it was helpful or would be helpful. Over a third of the students wrote that summary writing helped them understand the gist of the news items well. Four students explicitly stated that summarizing news items was helpful for learning summarization skills. Surprisingly, the fiercest critic of the initial writing lessons gave a five on the questionnaire and wrote ". . . it was very helpful because one of my weakest point[s] in English was summarization . . . I learned the techniques that are needed to summarize."

One surprising fact about summary writing activities is that after their implementation no one argued about using textual patterns in essay writing. The change in students' perception may have come about because they used the textual patterns for two challenging and worthwhile purposes (Leki & Carson, 1997) that helped them realize that textual patterns are more than just rules they must follow. First, they used patterns to find and comprehend the main points of difficult authentic news items. This taught them to see textual patterns as tools for comprehending texts. The second purpose of using textual patterns in the summarizing activities was to allow them to bring together seemingly unrelated vocabulary, phrases, or ideas in the news items in writing their summaries. This taught them to see the patterns as tools for writing essays.

To prevent the students from completing the course with the notion that vocabulary or phrases from external sources can be exploited freely without documentation, the post-writing lessons taught them about the differences between the writer's own language and borrowed words or phrases. This facilitated the smooth introduction of other aspects of academic writing such as documentation and writing of multiparagraph research papers.

Conclusion

Though EFL/ESL writers do not become competent writers simply by learning how to use English textual patterns, the skill becomes indispensable as they start acquiring and using generic knowledge (Paltridge, 1996) as well as engaging in more challenging tasks that "emphasize recognition and reorganization of data" (Horowitz, 1986, p. 455). Yet, as has been pointed out earlier, EFL/ESL writers often cannot see the point of using these patterns on their own. The present study suggests that summary writing activities can help students see the potential of textual patterns as a means of comprehending and writing English texts and can provide them with an accessible and meaningful entry point into the world of academic English writing and reading.

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(Received September 2, 1999; Revised January 8, 2000)

Appendix A

Sample Summary by the Teacher

[A summarized description of the lead] Twenty former prisoners of war made protests against the Emperor of Japan and his wife in South Wales on the second day of their state visit to Britain. [Contrasts in the news; topic sentence of this paragraph] This event highlighted two differences that exist between people of Wales today and the former POWs who labored in Japanese prison camps during Second World War. The first difference is their impression towards Japanese people. The former show their appreciation to the Japanese for giving them jobs at Japanese electronic companies, while the latter are angry at them for making them suffer as POWs. The second difference is in how they greeted the Japanese Imperial couple. The former greeted them by having a special ceremony and traditional events inside Cardiff Castle, but the latter waited outside the castle to make protests against them.

Appendix B

Two Versions of a News Item Summary by the Teacher

Version 1

[A summary of the lead] According to the latest report on violence on television, American TV viewers have a six in ten chance of seeing something violent. It also says that over three years, violence on network prime time increased 14 percent while Prime Cable has violence on 92 percent of its shows. What is more, nearly three-quarters of violent scenes on TV show no remorse, criticisms or penalties. [Topic sentence] Obviously, opinions on these violent shows differ depending on each individual. [Contrasts] Some parents, like the Smiths, are worried about TV violence; their children, however, say it does not hurt anyone. Broadcasters too, argue that violence on TV does not affect youth. But many researchers say that TV violence does have a connection with aggressive behavior. They say that worried parents will be able to get rid of violent programs by using the V-chips.

Version 2

This news item was about the latest report on violence and television. It said American TV viewers "have a six in ten chance of seeing something violent" (ABC World News Now). It also said that over three years, "violence on network prime time increased 14 percent" (ABC World News Now) while Prime Cable has violence on "92 percent of its shows" (ABC World News Now). What is more, it suggested that "nearly three-quarters of violent scenes on TV show no remorse, criticisms or penalties" (ABC World News Now). According to the news, opinions on these violent shows differ depending on each individual. Some parents, like the Smiths, are worried about TV violence; their children, however, say it does not hurt anyone. Broadcasters too, argue that violence on TV does not affect youth. But many researchers say that TV violence does have a connection with aggressive behavior. They say that worried parents will be able to get rid of violent programs by using the V-chips.

Appendix C: Sample Student Summaries

Sample 1

We used to think computer game industry produce video games soft-ware only for adolescent boys, but now it's pursuing new strategies to sell the games to attract to the girls and some adults.

Cosmo Makeover is the first example of the game that are made for girls; however there is also a model for men, so they won't feel left out. The another example is the game called "Spiral the Dragon." This game is designhed to appeal to the girls by cute title character and less confrontation. The games makers are resurrecting also the old favorite, like "Monopoly," and arcade classics like "Packman" now in 3D. These games are made not only for children, but also adults. For the last example there is a game called "Laura Croft," it's a famous superstar game character that appeals to children and adults, both. These days, software games are not only for adolescents boys.

Sample 2

According to the latest report, people have a six in ten chance of seeing something violent on television in America. The violence on network prime time increased by 14 percent and nearly three-quarters of violent scenes on TV show no remorse, criticism, or penalties. There are two types of views about TV violence. First, parents and researchers are worried that TV violence has a bad influence on children. Parents, therefore, limit their children's TV viewing.

Since many researchers say studies do correlate TV violence with aggressive behavior, they are at least happy that parents will soon have the V-chip to screen out violent programs. On the other hand, children don't think it problem to see a violent program, because it doesn't hurt anyone. In addition, broadcasters suggest that TV violence has nothing to do with juvenile crime, for Canadians don't face such problems even though they receive the same TV programs as Americans. In conclusion, there are totally opposite opinions about violence on TV.

Note: The students' grammatical and vocabulary errors have been left uncorrected. The underlining indicates the words and phrases they were required to use in their summaries to fulfill one of the task requirements.

Reviews

The Psychology of Language: A Critical Introduction. Michael A. Forrester. London: Sage Publications Ltd., 1996. 216 pp.

Reviewed by
Amy D. Yamashiro
Saitama Junior College

Have you ever bypassed reading a psycholinguistics book because the text looked incomprehensible, uninteresting, and/or irrelevant to real life? If you have, *The Psychology of Language: A Critical Introduction* may change your mind and offer a new perspective on the field. Michael A. Forrester breathes fresh life into the discipline by taking a critical stance on "accepted" theories and models of language. Forrester fearlessly goes beyond the existing boundaries of psycholinguistics research to include analyses of computer-generated media and interactive documents and, in doing so, opens the door to postmodern analysis of text construction and interpretation. He introduces "discursive social psychology," a term coined by combining discourse analysis and social psychology (p. 184). By arguing that modern views and beliefs in generalizable laws and principles must be amended to recognize the importance of reflexive critical inquiry, Forrester suggests that the notion of the neutral and objective scientific researcher and the positivistic ideals of scientific truth are no longer defensible. The shift to a focus on the interconnection between discourse analysis and social psychology, he argues, means that language researchers should examine language as social action. "Discursive" social psychology may help connect psycholinguistic research with future research examining the relationship between language and communication processes.

After providing a historical overview of psycholinguistics, Forrester examines language in relation to four distinct psychological approaches: cognitive psychology, neuropsychology, social psychology, and "discursive" social psychology. He begins by explaining that cognitive psychology can provide insights through which to critique the prevailing theories of language such as Chomsky's transformative generative grammar and communicative competence. When Forrester discusses semantics, he focuses on the philosophical underpinnings of semantics, and ends his discussion with speech act theory and pragmatics.

In a seamless fashion, Forrester covers spoken language, moving from deixis to conversational analysis and power relations within social interaction. He delves into written language, starting with sign-systems and social semiotics, and examines the reader's role in text interpretation before discussing text construction. With respect to writing research, he includes computer applications, such as "hypertext" and "hypermedia," which challenge the traditional boundaries of the author-reader relationship.

Forrester provides a coherent framework which not only links the themes of thinking (cognition), talk (spoken discourse), and text (written discourse), but also revives the field of psycholinguistics by establishing its relevance to daily life. His comprehensive synthesis of the discipline, critical review of the existing literature, and suggestions for future psycholinguistic research are invaluable. However, his single greatest contribution may be his ability to balance dense scholarship for the expert with much needed accessibility for the novice. So if you have thus far avoided reading in this field, I would highly recommend *The Psychology of Language: A Critical Introduction* as the most readable, current, and up-to-date introductory text on psycholinguistics available. Forrester truly provides a "critical" introduction to the psychology of language.

Teachers' Voices 3: Teaching Critical Literacy. Anne Burns and Susan Hood, Editors. Sydney, Australia: Macquarie University, 1998. 68 pp.

Reviewed by
Caroline Bertorelli

Teachers' Voices 3 is the third volume in the Teachers' Voices series presenting teachers' personal experiences of classroom-based action research. The research documented was from a special project undertaken through the National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research (NCELTR) at Macquarie University in Sydney, Australia. The format of this third volume differs from the previous volumes in that the research and suggestions for classroom application are now in separate sections.

This text, as the title suggests, focuses on the problem of how to teach critical literacy. It is divided into two sections. Section one consists of papers by the editors on the theory behind action research and critical literacy. Section two provides accounts from the six participating Adult Migrant Program English teachers and is organized according to the level of the English classes, from beginner to advanced.

The purpose of action research is for teachers to solve a specific problem in the classroom (Nunan, 1992) or to improve their teaching and facilitate learning by addressing problems through a systematic approach (Hadley, 1997). In the opening paper of section one, Anne Burns focuses on the importance of doing action research not only for professional development and personal growth, but also for networking and collaborating with other teachers. She describes how to carry this out in the present work and, incidentally, has just published a book with Cambridge University Press entitled *Collaborative Action Research for English Language Teachers*. The next paper, by Susan Hood, examines the meaning of critical literacy and its position in the context of other reading strategies such as schema theory.

Critical literacy is either the main feature or part of the class goal in each of the projects described in *Teachers' Voices 3*. Topics include reading fables, newspaper articles or other texts relating to cultural and social issues about Australia. Activities include identifying the speaker or writer, questioning the content, and identifying the audience. Each research project conforms to a standardized format: the research framework is stated first, followed by the activities performed, reflections on their research by the teachers, and discussion tasks and classroom tasks for the reader.

The text includes a wide selection of material and sample worksheets for developing learners' critical skills, and these can be easily adapted. The most interesting part of the research is the teachers' own reflections and suggestions for further research. These are very insightful and useful for teachers involved in teaching critical literacy, and are also applicable to teachers reviewing their own teaching in general.

This book is an invaluable text for any teacher involved in teaching critical literacy, whether as the main theme or as an element of a course. The question, "What is critical literacy?" as well as how to teach it is thoroughly explored without being prescriptive. The projects are clearly written, and the fixed format used for describing the projects makes the book readily accessible.

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Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classrooms. **Jack C. Richards and Charles Lockhart. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1994. xii + 218 pp.**

Reviewed by
Brenda Dyer
Tokyo Women's Christian University

Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classrooms, one volume in the Cambridge Language Education series, is designed for use in pre-service and in-service teacher education programs. It introduces tools of reflection, self-inquiry, and self-evaluation as a means of professional development and thus reflects the recent trend in education of teacher-initiated, bottom-up views of the teaching process, rather than the more traditional methods and top-down approach. As the authors say, the book does not intend "to tell teachers what effective teaching is, but rather tries to develop a critically reflective approach to teaching, which can be used with any teaching method" (p. 3). Teachers are led to collect data about their own teaching; to examine their attitudes, beliefs, and assumptions; and then to use the information as a basis for both theorizing about teaching and improving their own professional practice. This is an empowering and creative approach to teacher training and one that could support a lifetime of career development.

The book's main merit is in its adaptability and scope. It claims from the outset to be focused on practice, rather than theory, encouraging teachers to construct their own theories of teaching, based on their own experience. However, the fact that the book itself is based on the theory of reflective professional practice means that it is widely applicable to teachers of all levels of experience, background, and methodology. The presentation of core issues in teacher development is quite elegantly accomplished through each chapter's brief review of research on teaching processes, quotes from learners and teachers, and transcripts from classroom interaction, followed by discussion questions that demand that teachers reflect on their own beliefs about and/or experience with the chapter's central issue. Suggested tasks at the end of each chapter include peer observation, self-evaluation, and action research. As each chapter leads teachers deeper into their own processes, the self-reflective approach is internalized. If teachers observe their own teaching as sensitively and intelligently as the book recommends, they will surely develop life-long reflective habits that will continue to enhance professional self-awareness, knowledge, and skill. One of the five assumptions about teacher development listed in the introduction is, "Experience is insufficient as a basis for development" (p. 4). Although personal experience is the foundation of the procedures presented in this book, the authors stress that only by critical evaluation of experience do change and development occur. The process of reflecting upon one's own teaching is an essential element in constructing theories of teaching, and at its basis is a series of provocative questions that inform each chapter, such as:

> What are my beliefs about teaching and where do they come from?
>
> What kind of planning decisions do I use?
>
> What form do my lessons have?
>
> What kinds of interactions occur in my classroom?

Through reflecting on questions like these, teachers evaluate their teaching, pinpoint areas needing change, posit strategies for change, and observe the effects of these strategies.

The book is less linear and more process-oriented than many teacher-training manuals, yet includes practical exercises such as discussion questions and chapter-end tasks. The exercises that form the basis of each chapter have been class-tested by the authors in various countries including the U.S., Brazil, Hong Kong, and Japan. The chapters, with the exception of Chapter 1, could be used in any order, depending on whether the book is used with pre-service or in-service teachers. Chapter 1 provides an essential introduction to classroom investigative procedures such as journals, lesson reports, questionnaires, audio and video recordings, observation, and action research. It is one of the best chapters of the book since it is concise, clear, supported by quotes from teachers, and concluding with excellent discussion questions. At the end of every chapter appear several appendices. In chapter 1 these include reflective questions to guide journal entries, guidelines for personal observation, and guidelines for conducting action research. Chapter 3 ("Focus on the Learner") is also excellent. Written around the idea that, "while learning is the goal of teaching, it is not necessarily the mirror image of teaching" (p. 52), it suggests ways to explore learners' beliefs about teaching and learning. The exploratory action research section on learning styles and strategies also looks useful.

The main criticism of the book is that it doesn't acknowledge fully enough its debts to the long theoretical tradition of reflective teacher practice, nor does it develop the more sociopolitical, post-modern questions the reflective approach begs. Though mention is made of applications of theories of reflective practice to the field of second language teaching, it seems that the theoretical foundation should be laid out more in the introduction, in summary, at least. There has been a long and continuous interest in reflection in teacher education since the time of John Dewey. However, the real theorist of reflective inquiry is Donald Schon (1983), who presented his methods of exploring professional knowledge, first to engineers, architects, town planners, and psychologists and later to teachers. Mayher's (1990) "uncommon sense" view of education describes teachers who improvise, frame problems in new ways, and engage in hypothesis testing as they reflect on practice. Britton (1987) suggests that "every lesson should be for the teacher an inquiry, some further discovery, a quiet form of research, and that time to reflect, draw inferences, and plan further inquiry is also essential" (p. 15). More acknowledgement of the historical and current interests in reflective professional practice would lend validity to the questions and exercises in each chapter, which some teachers, particularly those from non-Western cultures, might find overly personal, "touchy-feely," or even irrelevant. To cultures in which education means the dispensation of information from teacher/text, this learner-centered, exploratory, process approach might appear ridiculous. Even a basic tool of reflective practice, peer observation, could potentially be a significant psychological barrier for someone from a culture where classroom observation has been associated with prescription, criticism, and control. With a more persuasive introduction which outlines the history of reflective practice and defends its application to second language teaching, new and experienced teachers, especially those from non-Western cultures, may be more enthusiastic about diving into the probing personal work that follows.

Paulo Freire and the research his work has inspired are also sadly absent from the book in both name and sentiment. He was one of the seminal teacher-researchers endorsing this self-reflective, experimental approach to teaching. His ideas of "praxis" and "problem-posing" are basic to the theories of reflective professional practice. Further, the searching sociopolitical questions that follow from his approach are missing. Surely a textbook on reflective second language teacher training should invite questions of power from multicultural, cross-cultural, ethnic, and gendered points of view. In order to search for principles that underlie our teaching, for the reasons that are the basis of our theory of teaching, we need to uncover the inconsistencies and contradictions in what we do in the classroom. Such questions as: "Who has the power in my classroom?" "How does what I do benefit the students?" and "Whose interests are being served?" are crucial ones in uncovering the subtle and unconscious ways we disempower students on the basis of race and gender. Chapter 2 ("Exploring Teachers' Beliefs") would be the natural arena for this type of exploration, but it fails to include questions about teachers' assumptions about race, culture, or gender. Similarly, Chapter 5 ("The Role of the Teacher"), though basically good, lacks more probing reflection on how power is constituted in the foreign language classroom. The short section on "Cultural Dimensions of Roles" is not enough.

Despite these shortcomings, *Reflective Teaching in Second Language Classrooms* would serve as an excellent core text in teacher education programs. Such texts are often either too theoretical or err on the side of practicality, descending to the "ESL bag of tricks" level with an approach to teaching as a skilled trade, rather than a profession. Richards and Lockhart's approach suffers from neither of these common weaknesses. It succeeds in giving teachers numerous practical applications while retaining a reflective, theoretical basis and provides the building blocks of an intelligent, flexible, professional practice.

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Text-based Syllabus Design. Susan Feez. Sydney, Australia: National Centre for English Language Teaching and Research, 1998. 144 pp.

Reviewed by
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Miyazaki International College

Text-based Syllabus Design is not a book about designing a language course around a mandated text. Rather, it is about designing and implementing courses that enable "learners to develop the knowledge and skills which will allow them to engage with whole texts (spoken or written) appropriate to social contexts" (p. v). This text-based approach, Feez informs us, has evolved during the past twenty-odd years as Australian language educators have come increasingly to focus on students' developing discourse skills.

Feez includes a background chapter as well as chapters on text-based syllabus implementation, analysis of student needs and monitoring of progress, course design, and unit and lesson planning. The chapters' pre-reading questions and reflection tasks are geared to teachers who are reading the book for their own professional development or who are involved in in-service training. In such contexts, the first chapter's theoretical background of the text-based syllabus would be especially useful, as the chapter compares the text-based syllabus with more familiar syllabi: structural, situational, topic-based, functional-notional, process (negotiated), task-based, and mixed. Feez explains how elements of each might find their way into a text-based syllabus.

Besides teachers seeking further training, another audience for the book would be educators interested in English language teaching in Australia. *Text-based Syllabus Design* contains numerous examples drawn from the Certificates in Spoken and Written English (CSWE), Australia's "most widely used adult TESOL curriculum framework" (p. 9). The CSWE requires students at each level to learn about at least one text type from each of the following families: exchanges, forms, procedures, information texts, story texts, and persuasive texts. As students progress to higher levels, they cycle back through text families and reencounter familiar text types in more complex forms.

Teachers evaluate students according to CSWE criteria and decide whether students advance through the curriculum. In addition, teachers pass information about students along to a nationwide database that is kept as part of Australia's Adult Migrant Education Program. Clearly, the CSWE curriculum provides a rich context for text-based syllabus design, as Feez explains quite well.

The main drawback of *Text-based Syllabus Design* is that while the examples from the CSWE are certainly useful, they are not thoroughly fleshed out. Feez could have written more about real teachers attempting to implement real text-based syllabi that conform to the CSWE curriculum. For example, what happens when teachers attempt to evaluate students according to CSWE criteria? For that matter, what, if any, problems have arisen from keeping a nationwide database on immigrants? Of course, the publication of *Text-based Syllabus Design* can initiate this critical discourse, as the book provides much of the necessary background to it.

Text-based Syllabus Design also provides readers with well laid out figures and tables. Logically minded course and curriculum planners will love the book's various diagrams, charts, and checklists. These features may not, however, immediately appeal to creative course designers, those who prefer, for example, the narrative, real-world, messy look and feel of Kathleen Graves's (1996) *Teachers as Course Developers*. So a paradoxical aspect of the book is that, though innovative in theory, it is not so innovative in style. Even right-brainers, though, should be able to see past style issues to the truly insightful and creative concepts in this book. Educators in Japan and elsewhere would do well to keep an eye on their Australian counterparts.

Reference

Graves, K. (1996). *Teachers as course developers*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

The Neurobiology of Affect in Language. John H. Schumann. Oxford: Blackwell, 1997. 341 pp.

Reviewed by
Jenifer Hermes
University of Washington

Any teacher who has ever wondered, "What's going on with this student?" will find *The Neurobiology of Affect in Language* to be a fascinating departure point in the search for an answer. The title and introductory sections of this book are dauntingly technical and may put off the casual reader. This would be unfortunate for Schumann has written an accessible and persuasive account of the relationship between the inner working of our students' brains and their language learning behavior.

Adult language learners' efforts are, as teachers know, not uniformly successful. What can account for this variability in learner achievement? Schumann points out that emotional, or affective, factors underlie all cognition and that the language learning process is no exception. Attitude and motivation have long been seen to be intrinsically connected with language achievement. Schumann reports that while studying the relationship between acculturation and second language learning he became interested in the neurobiological and cognitive underpinnings of social and/or psychological processes. He began to study neuroanatomy, intent on "discovering whether there was some mechanism in the brain that allowed emotion to influence (or perhaps even control) cognition" (p. xix).

This brief introduction to the genesis of the text illustrates one of the book's principal strengths: the author's enthusiasm for the topic and his wide-ranging curiosity. While many educators may wonder what is happening inside learners' brains, few of us would set out to discover the neuroanatomical explanation. This, however, is precisely what Schumann has done for us. This book provides evidence for connections between learners' psychology and neurobiology and the variation in their language learning paths. This connection resides in a system called "stimulus appraisal." All organisms, language students included, assign value to stimuli based on criteria "such as whether [the stimuli] are novel, pleasant, enhancing of one's goals or needs, compatible with one's coping mechanisms, and supportive of one's self and social image" (p. 2). The individual's life experiences and history of preferences play a vital role in this system as well. Autobiographical diary sketches are one method by which language learners' experiences and histories can be explored.

Because each learner has a unique life history, and because second language acquisition is a time-consuming process, Schumann tells us that, "each individual's affective trajectory in SLA is unique" (p. xx). This book is based on hard science, but the theory that it outlines serves to underscore the importance of the individual.

The first two chapters, "The Theory" and "The Neural Mechanism," are tough reading for nonscientists, but they are carefully written and rewarding. The subsequent chapters provide data in the form of questionnaires and diary studies and are fascinating to read. Chapter 5, "Implications," in which the author links the theory to classroom language teaching practice, is an excellent example of how a complex theory can be linked to practical issues of interest to every teacher.

Schumann points out that teachers have their own appraisal systems and suggests that productive research could be carried out using student appraisals to discover, "how some teachers are able to achieve maximum congruence between their appraisals of how language should be taught and their students' appraisals of how language should be learned . . . [s]uch research may reveal how good teachers work productively with their students' varying stimulus-appraisal systems" (pp. 187-188).

The Neurobiology of Affect in Language is very successful in explaining a complex theory in clear language, and also in outlining the relevance of the theory to daily classroom practice. Teachers who read this book will learn much about what is happening inside their students' heads and also about how this affects attitudes and behavior.

Information for Contributors

All submissions must conform to *JALT Journal* Editorial Policy and Guidelines.

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JALT Journal 日本語論文投稿要領

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JALT Journal 日本語編集者　木村真治

JALT Journal 第22巻　第1号

2000年 4月20日　印刷

2000年 5月 1日　発行

編集人　サンドラ・フォトス
発行人　トーマス・シモンズ
発行所　全国語学教育学会事務局
〒110-0016 東京都台東区台東1-37-9 アーバンエッジビル５Ｆ
TEL (03)3837-1630; FAX (03)3837-1631
印刷所　コーシンシャ株式会社
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JALT 2000

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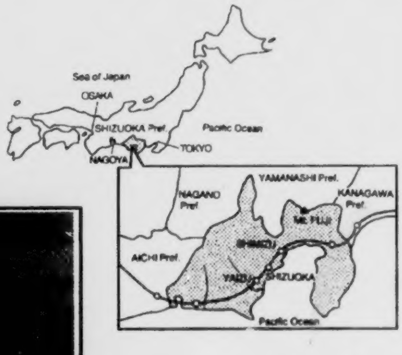
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ISSN 0287-2420

JALT JapanTESOL

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JALT Journal

Volume 22, No. 2
November 2000

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Japan Association for Language Teaching
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The Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT) is a nonprofit professional organization dedicated to the improvement of language teaching and learning in Japan. It provides a forum for the exchange of new ideas and techniques and a means of keeping informed about new developments in the rapidly changing field of second and foreign language education. Established in 1976, JALT serves an international membership of more than 3,400. There are 39 JALT chapters in Japan, one affiliate chapter, and 13 Special Interest Groups (SIGs), two affiliate SIGs, and three forming SIGs. JALT is the Japan affiliate of International TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) and is a branch of IATEFL (International Association of Teachers of English as a Foreign Language).

JALT publishes *JALT Journal*, a semiannual research journal; *The Language Teacher*, a monthly magazine containing articles, teaching activities, reviews, and announcements about professional concerns; and *JALT International Conference Proceedings*.

The JALT International Conference on Language Teaching and Learning and Educational Materials Exposition attracts some 2,000 participants annually and offers over 300 papers, workshops, colloquia, and poster sessions. Local meetings are held by each JALT chapter, and JALT's SIGs provide information on specific concerns. JALT also sponsors special events such as workshops and conferences on specific themes and awards annual grants for research projects related to language teaching and learning.

Membership is open to those interested in language education and includes enrollment in the nearest chapter, copies of JALT publications, and reduced admission to JALT-sponsored events. JALT members can join as many SIGs as they wish for an annual fee of ¥1,500 per SIG. For information, contact the JALT Central Office.

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In This Issue

Articles

The main section presents four articles on the general theme of learner perceptions of EFL activities. **Tim Murphey** and **George M. Jacobs** lead off with a review essay on collaborative learning, suggesting that it plays a significant role in developing learner autonomy and critical thinking. They use the term "critical collaborative autonomy" to describe a learner-centered process where students work with peers to gain control of their learning and develop their own voices. The next paper, by **Virginia LoCastro**, presents a study of Japanese university EFL learners' written reviews of their peers' English essays before and after instruction in order to investigate whether learners were willing to adopt English pragmatic norms. After instruction the learners showed a slightly increased use of targeted speech acts and strategies when critiquing the essays of their peers. The third paper, by **Chloé Gallien**, **Sabine Hotho** and **Harry Staines**, investigates the impact of modified versus authentic aural input on the perceptions of English speaking university learners of French and German. Both groups of language learners reported little difference in preference for authentic and modified listening input, although they scored better with modified input, and were favorably disposed towards all types of input. The final paper, by **Hui-Lung Chia** and **Hui-Uen Chia**, examines perceptions of EFL reading held by Taiwanese university EFL students of low reading proficiency. The learners expressed little awareness of diverse repair strategies, regarded English reading as a language learning exercise, and approached reading tasks at word level, focusing on vocabulary and sentence structure rather than on meaning.

Research Forum

In this section **Greta J. Gorsuch** and **Brent Culligan** report on the use of Item Response Theory (IRT) to inform learner placement decisions, and suggest that this procedure results in greater accuracy than population-dependent standard analyses, including the standard error of measurement. They recommend using IRT procedures for groups of 100 or more learners because of its greater sensitivity.

Perspectives

In a review article **Hideo Horibe** uses metaphor to analyze conflicting views of the spread of English as an international language. English is compared to Cinderella because of expectations for its future global importance, to a kidnapped or adopted child because some native speakers mourn the loss of their exclusive ownership of the language, and to the monster Godzilla because English use can damage other languages and cultures. The final article, by **Jonathan D. Picken**, is a literature review discussing the use of advertisements to provide authentic English for second/foreign language classrooms. Ads are particularly recommended to provide "language play," relaxing and enjoyable discourse to help learners construct form-meaning relationships, and as a resource for intercultural understanding.

Reviews

Topics addressed in book reviews by **Sandra Ishikawa**, **Anthony S. Rausch**, **Terry Vanderveen**, **Stella Yamazaki** and **Tatsuroh Yamazaki**, **Alison Stewart**, and **Jennifer Whittle** include the role of language testing in second language acquisition, collaborative action research for English language teachers, a simplified presentation of testing basics, the role of affect in language learning, a genre analysis of language use in three academic discourse communities, and a presentation of the proceedings from two conferences recently held in Tokyo, the 3rd Pacific Second Language Research Forum, March 1998, and the Individual Differences and Second Language Research Forum, March 1999.

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From the Editors

With this issue, we welcome **Steve Cornwell** to the *JALT Journal* Editorial Advisory Board and thank departing Board member **Fred Anderson** for his years of service. We also thank **Andrew Moody** for his service as proofreader for the past two years.

Conference News

The 26th JALT Annual International Conference on Language Teaching/ Learning and Educational Materials Exposition will be held November 2-5, 2000, at the Granship Shizuoka Conference & Arts Centre, Shizuoka City, Shizuoka Prefecture. The conference theme is *Towards the New Millennium*. Contact the JALT Central Office for information.

Editorial Transition

From January 2001 incoming *JALT Journal* Editor and current Associate Editor **Nicholas O. Jungheim** will handle manuscripts submitted to the main section of the journal, to Research Forum, and to Point to Point. The new Associate Editor will receive Perspectives submissions, and the new Japanese-language Editor will receive Japanese-language submissions. Information about the new Editors will be announced in *The Language Teacher*. The formal editorial transition will take place on June 1, 2001 after publication of the May issue.

Articles

Encouraging Critical Collaborative Autonomy

Tim Murphey
Nanzan University

George M. Jacobs
SEAMEO Regional Language Centre

In this theory-building review essay, we advocate that second language teachers encourage their students to act critically, cooperatively, and autonomously. We discuss the three components of critical collaborative autonomy, explain why these components fit together, and present ideas for promoting their interaction and development. Being autonomous does not necessarily mean learning in isolation, but rather having the ability to metacognitively and critically make decisions as to the means one uses to learn and develop. It is our contention that students learn autonomy more quickly through guided cooperative learning in which they collaborate with peers to find and create their autonomous and critical voices. The incremental assuming of control of one's language learning within a community not only accelerates acquisition but changes group and individual personalities. While we focus principally on this process in second language acquisition, we also briefly address the wider sociocultural, political, and philosophical nature of such effort.

本論では、外国語教師は、学習者を批判的、協力的、自主的に活動するように励ますべきであると提唱する。“批判的、協力的、自主的な学習集団”の三つの構成要因を検証し、なぜそれらが整合性があるのかを明らかにする。さらに、それぞれの要因がどのように影響し合い、発展していくのかについて述べる。自主的な学習者であるということは、必ずしも一人で学習するということではなく、むしろ、各自が学ぶ手段について、客観的、批判的に意志決定する能力を有することを意味している。したがって、教師が協力的な学習環境を与えることにより、学習者は、仲間と共に協力し合い、批判的な意見を交わしながら、より早く自主性を身につける。自主的な学習者は、こうした学習環境の中で、言語習得を加速させるばかりではなく、自らを発達させ、学習集団そのものの性格をも変えていく。第二言語習得理論のみならず、社会文化的、政治的、哲学的な側面にも言及する。

JALT Journal, Vol. 22, No. 2, November, 2000

When we look back at the past century, we see many ways in which people have gained greater control over decisions that affect their lives. In 1900 many countries were still colonies, most people did not go to school, and many people had little or no access to outside sources of information. In 2000 we see a host of new countries, schooling has become the norm, and technology offers access to a wide range of information with fewer restrictions. Today we see an expanding picture in which many people have more and better ways of understanding and affecting the course of their lives. With specific reference to the situation in second language (L2) education, we see changes that augur well for more control by those who had little formal power before.

One of these changes in L2 education is a growing focus on promoting learner autonomy. In this article we explain how students can become more autonomous, defined here as being aware of and in charge of their choices, by working together. In particular we discuss cooperative learning and the stages leading to critical collaborative autonomy. We begin by examining learner-centeredness, a key rationale for learner autonomy.

Learner-Centeredness

Cognitive psychologists investigating the learning process emphasize the role of learners rather than teachers and materials (Slavin, 1995). This emphasis has inspired a number of changes of focus in education, such as a stress on process over product (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1987), and on students as active constructors of knowledge rather than as empty vessels to be filled (Brown, Collins & Duguid, 1990; Bruner, 1966). Teachers working from learner-centered cognitivist perspectives attempt to facilitate their students' learning because they know they cannot control it. Palmer (1998, p. 6) puts it thusly in reference to university education:

> I have no question that students who learn, not professors who perform, is what teaching is all about. . .Teachers possess the power to create conditions that can help students learn a great deal—or keep them from learning much at all. Teaching is the intentional act of creating those conditions.

Teachers wishing to create those conditions need learner feedback because students not only construct their own knowledge, but they are also co-constructors with teachers of the environment in which their learning takes place. Furthermore students have many opportunities to construct learning outside the classroom, either on their own initiative or with their teachers' guidance.

A prominent manifestation of this paradigm shift towards learner-centeredness in L2 education has been the concept of learner autonomy. Dickinson (1999, p. 2), discussing the application of the idea to L2 settings, defines learner autonomy as "an attitude to learning that the learner develops in which the learner is willing and able to make the significant decisions about her learning." Many books and articles on L2 instruction advocate learner autonomy and describe how it can be implemented. However, as we will note, much of the literature on L2 learner autonomy describes students working collaboratively. The next two sections of this article discuss the benefits of collaboration and concepts underlying its facilitation. Afterwards we return to the issue of learner autonomy and discuss the link between collaboration and autonomy.

Why Collaborative?

Collaboration offers benefits in many areas of life, from sports to the workplace to the family (Johnson & Johnson, 1994; Kohn, 1992). Collaboration with peers can be especially beneficial. Hartup (1992) maintains that peer relations are important to the social and intellectual development of children as well as to success in adulthood. The world of work, where teams are becoming a more common organizational form and advances in computers have greatly facilitated collaboration, provides further evidence supporting the efficacy of collaboration (Collis & Heeren, 1993; Hilt, 1992).

Peer collaboration in education can be very powerful. A large body of research suggests that collaboration among students can lead to superior results for a wide range of performance variables including achievement, thinking skills, interethnic relations, liking for school, and self-esteem (for reviews, see Bossert, 1988-1989; Cohen, 1994; Johnson & Johnson, 1989; Sharan, 1980; Slavin, 1995).

Social learning theory (Bandura, 1977, 1986) describes how we learn from one another through imitation and vicarious experience. However, not all role models in our environment have equal influence. It is suggested that who are close to us in terms of proximity, time, ethnicity, age, sex, interests, and learning have a significant impact upon us as *near peer role models* (Murphey, 1998a). In the case of L2 education students can easily identify with one another, whereas teachers are more distant role models and thus may not be as effective as near peers who demonstrate ability in the L2. Collaborating students may often learn a great deal from one another simply because they are appropriate role models, providing comprehensible input and learnable information within each others' zones of proximal development (ZPD)

(Vygotsky, 1978). The ZPD contains learning and tasks that are possible with the help of others but which one person alone is not quite able to achieve.

Key Concepts in Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning (CL) can be defined as a set of concepts and strategies for enhancing student-student collaboration. (See Appendix 1 for a list of websites and a listserv on CL, and Liang, Mohan, & Early, 1998 for a review of some of the L2 literature on CL.) Two concepts central to CL are *positive interdependence* and *individual accountability* (Johnson & Johnson, 1994). Positive interdependence is the feeling among group members that they sink or swim together. If one fails, then all suffer in some way. If one succeeds, then everyone benefits. Group members realize that each member's efforts benefit not only themselves but all other group members as well. Positive interdependence provides a feeling of support within the group not unlike that of a cohesive sports team. This may be compared to the strong cultural tradition in Japan of *amae*, a kind of dependency that is highly valued.

Individual accountability exists when each member feels responsible to learn, to demonstrate this learning, and to contribute to the learning of group-mates. However, the purpose of CL is for group members to become stronger individuals in their own right. Therefore groups do not measure their success by a particular group product (e.g., a group composition), but by the individual progress of each group member (e.g., the ability of each member to write well and to give useful feedback on the writing of others). Individual accountability provides a feeling of pressure within the group which, hopefully, mixes well with the feeling of support offered by positive interdependence. This combination of peer support and peer pressure is one of the means by which CL attempts to avoid replacing domination by the teacher with domination by the group or by a dominant group member.

Jigsaw (Aronson, Blaney, Stephan, Sikes, & Snapp, 1978), a CL technique known to many L2 teachers, provides an example of how student interaction can be structured to promote positive interdependence and individual accountability. Please note the use of the term "promoting" instead of "requiring," "furnishing," "guaranteeing," or "providing" since, in a learner-centered view, all that teachers can do is to promote and encourage. In Jigsaw, each group member obtains unique information to share with the other group members so that the group can perform a subsequent task. Thus, learners are encouraged to support each other by teaching their unique information to the rest of the group.

At the same time they may feel pressure to learn their information well because the group is depending on them.

Another key concept from the CL literature involves the importance of collaborative skills (Johnson & Johnson, 1994). For student-student collaboration to succeed, a set of collaborative skills is needed such as disagreeing politely, checking if others understand, and listening attentively. For instance, in research on peer feedback in L2 writing instruction we can see an attempt to help students master the collaborative skills needed to work with one another, e.g., providing feedback checklists and teaching how to give constructive criticism. These collaborative skills are suggested to promote L2 acquisition by enhancing interaction (Bejarano, Levine, Olshtain & Steiner, 1997). Furthermore the language needed to operationalize the skills fits well with functional approaches to L2 instruction (Coelho, 1992).

This article began with a discussion of the notion of learner-centeredness, including learner autonomy. The value of student-student collaboration was then explored along with concepts from the literature on CL which have been suggested to help students work together more eagerly and effectively. Next, we suggest why collaboration aids learner autonomy and, indeed, serves as a vital element in the repertoire of autonomous L2 learners.

Interpreting Learner Autonomy Collaboratively

As a result of the paradigm shift towards learner-centered education by many L2 educators, students have more of a role in determining what, when, and how they study and how their learning will be assessed. However, with this power comes the responsibility for planning and carrying out learning. Students may shy away from this responsibility and may even resent teachers who try to give up some of their power, labeling such teachers as irresponsible. Here cultural and institutional contexts play important roles (Pierson, 1996).

However, learners who are initially not inclined toward autonomy can be encouraged to be more autonomous. Dickinson (1999) states that L2 students need both psychological preparation to accept autonomy and methodological preparation to take on the responsibilities that autonomy brings. Methodological preparation involves acquiring strategies and collaborative skills for taking part in planning, directing, and assessing their own learning (Areglado, Bradley & Lane, 1996). Knowles (1975, cited in Higgs, 1988, p. 44) suggests that competent self-directed language learning includes "[t]he ability to relate to peers collaboratively, to see them as resources."

Although terms such as learner independence and autonomy may mistakenly be interpreted as solitary learning, the term autonomy does not imply that students study alone (Benson, 1997; Dam, 1995; Harris & Noyau, 1990; Kenny, 1993; Lee, 1998; Littlewood, 1996; Macaro, 1997; Murphey, 1998b; Pemberton, 1996; Van Lier, 1996). Indeed, Assinder (1991) reports that participating in group activities increased her L2 students' autonomy as well as their accuracy, motivation, participation, and confidence. In Geary's (1998, p. 1) words, students can go "from dependence toward independence via interdependence." Here we emphasize that interdependence and collaboration are not left behind in achieving independence; rather, independence includes learner understanding of how and when collaboration may be beneficial and the right to choose it. In a book on L2 teaching methodology Harmer (1998) suggests:

> [Group activities] give students chances for greater independence. Because they are working together without the teacher controlling every move, they make some of their own learning decisions, they decide what language to use to complete a certain task, and they can work without the pressure of the whole class listening to what they are doing. Decisions are cooperatively arrived at, responsibilities are shared (p. 21).

Vygotskian (1978) sociocultural theory lends further support to the idea of collaborative autonomy with its clarifying description of how learning is first "intermentally" constructed between two or more minds and only later appropriated and used intramentally as one's own tool to create more learning (Wells, 1999). In learning there is an ongoing dance between intermental and intramental functioning as we continually construct individual understanding from the discourse of others and combine this understanding with previous learning within our zones of proximal development. It is collaborative interaction that allows partners to adjust to each other appropriately and to give each other what is "learnable" at their respective stages of development. For example, many scholars have advocated the Vygotskian-inspired scaffolded use of peer feedback in L2 writing instruction (e.g., Brown, 1994; Lockhart & Ng, 1995; Nelson, 1995; Reid, 1993; Stanley, 1992), and Donato (1994) has illustrated how this scaffolding occurs in other types of L2 tasks as well.

Palmer (1998, p. 74) describes how effective classrooms resolve the apparent paradox between the individual and the group, saying that "space should support solitude and surround it with the resources of community." Rather than being two opposing forces, collaboration and autonomy work together in the same way that CL's "positive interdependence" and "individual accountability" support each other. Palmer encourages us to go to a higher level of thinking through the realization that the individual and the community make each other possible; thus we must learn to work harmoniously for the good of both.

Facilitating Collaborative Learner Autonomy

Murphey (1998b) conceptualizes a process of five stages, or "movements," through which many L2 students seem to pass as they become more autonomous. He also describes activities that can facilitate progress. The five overlapping and often co-occurring movements are: (1) socialization; (2) dawning metacognition; (3) initiating choice; (4) expanding autonomy; and (5) critical collaborative autonomy (see Breen & Mann, 1997 and Nunan, 1997 for other stage-like descriptions). The first three movements—socialization, dawning metacognition, and initiating choice—can be encouraged from the start of a class by the way teachers structure their teaching. Obviously, participation is greatly determined by the invitational structure that teachers provide and the overall classroom climate created jointly by students, teachers, and the larger societal context.

The first movement toward autonomy, *socialization*, refers to learners in the initial phase of joining a group or class, getting to know their fellow group members and feeling comfortable in their group. During this stage it is essential that group membership becomes part of the learners' identity. In CL, this is known as "positive identity interdependence." Team and class-building activities can be useful here (Kagan, Kagan & Kagan, 1997; Kagan, Robertson, and Kagan, 1995). For example, during an initial class meeting simply learning one another's names and having the chance to exchange a few words can help create feelings of membership. The key idea at this stage is that all participants feel surrounded by what Palmer (1998) calls the "resources of community."

The second movement toward autonomy, *dawning metacognition*, refers to learners examining their own learning process. This examination takes place more readily in groups because students can discuss their thoughts, beliefs, and behaviors with each other and can compare their own views with those of their group-mates. Activities to facilitate metacognition include students explaining to each other how they thought of an answer instead of just telling the answer, thinking aloud when working on a task, and disagreeing politely. Another collaborative activity for fostering metacognition is what the CL literature calls "processing group interaction" (Johnson, Johnson & Holubec, 1993). Here students assess how well they have worked together and how they can improve collaboration in the future. This assessment can involve self, peer, and group feedback.

Initiating choice, the third movement toward autonomy, can occur simultaneously with the first two and involves students making choices about learning such as selecting an activity, choosing how to present their work, and receiving input on how assessment will be conducted. Students can also choose roles to play within their groups. These roles may be concerned with the mechanics of the activity, such as the timekeeper or the recorder, as well as roles more concerned with group functioning such as the encourager, who encourages all members to participate, and the checker, who checks whether everyone understands the activity.

Socialization, metacognition, and initiating choice can be more readily observed when students give feedback on class content and activities. For instance in action logging (Murphey, 1993) students write reflections on their learning process and its context. The quote below, from an L2 student's action log, demonstrates how structures such as collaborative testing (Murphey, 1995) can enhance learning, promote a cooperative spirit among students, and help students feel more confident about their L2 proficiency.

> I enjoyed the test very much. It was not difficult for me because I could prepare for it in advance. So I did it with fun! At first, I had thought that it might be a written one. It was not, but a collaborative test which was new for me. The evaluation of it depends on our subjective judgement. It is a little difficult for me because I have been so familiar with teacher's objective [sic] judgement which is thought to be "fair." Japanese traditional teachers often compare us with other students. We have to compete each other. But in your class, the rival of our study is ourselves. The most important thing is whether we do our best and satisfy ourselves or not. It encourages me a lot because I can be proud of myself. In this class, I tried to do my best. I made a lot of friends and was impressed by them through this class (Nori, 7/99).

Murphey labels the fourth movement *expanding autonomy*. At this point the students' range of choices grows. They may be involved in self-assessment and in providing feedback to the teacher regarding the most beneficial ways for them to learn. Murphey suggests that the students' expanding autonomy can travel outside the classroom through self-selection of partners and ways to enhance learning on their own with significant co-learners. By this stage the students have socialized into a group, initiated choices, and become aware of their strategies but perhaps not about their beliefs or their identities. They may consciously start *near peer role modeling* as discussed above.

The fifth and most advanced movement in this framework is *critical collaborative autonomy*. By this point learners have come to appreciate how and why "two heads are better than one" and also that through "respectful interdependence" (Murphey, 1998b, p. 28), everyone can benefit from the group. This fifth movement constitutes the focus of the next section.

Critical Collaborative Autonomy

We have suggested that "autonomy" combines well with "collaborative" because collaboration offers a powerful means of promoting autonomy among L2 learners. Now we would like to explain why adding "critical" to "collaborative autonomy" creates a more useful concept. The rationale consists of two parts. The first concerns the "how" of collaborative autonomy, and the second concerns the "what."

The "how" involves each individual using the analytical powers that Shor (1993) has described for critical literacy (see also, Brown, 1999):

> [A]nalytic habits of thinking, reading, writing, speaking, or discussing which go beneath surface impressions, traditional myths, mere opinions, and routine cliches; understanding the social contexts and consequences of any subject matter; discovering the deep meaning of any event, text, technique, process, objects, statement, image, or situation; applying that meaning to your own context (p. 32).

It is also important to find the right mix between working with others and doing one's own thinking. Trim (1997) describes this mix in the context of the Council of Europe's efforts at L2 education:

> [Learners] recognise the rights of others and accept the necessary constraints on living in a society in a co-operative spirit. For learners, this means linguistic and cultural awareness, study and heuristic skills, and also social skills, an understanding of what is best done alone or in pairs and groups and in the latter case a willingness to engage in democratic decision making (p. 15).

The "critical," defined as the assertive questioning of ways, means, and outcomes, acts against overly acquiescent collaboration. Students may need activities and examples that show that dissent is not counter to collaboration but is essential to the effectiveness of groups. Courageous examples of dissent, such as M. Gandhi, Nelson Mandela, and Aung San Suu Kyi, show on an international level what is also true in a small group: the virtue of standing up for one's views even in the face of great pressure to desist. This is in contrast to sheepishly collaborating to keep things smooth on the surface. In critical collaborative autonomy, "yes-people" and "sheep" are as unhealthy as the "rugged individualist loner" and the "egocentric narcissist." Mandela put this nicely describing Gandhi: "He replaced self-interest with group interest without minimizing the importance of self. In fact, the interdependence of the social and personal is at the heart of his philosophy" (1999, p. 75).

Pennycook (1997) advocates the same critical perspective in pursuit of discovering student voices:

> Autonomy . . . is not something achieved by the handing over of power or by rational reflection; rather, it is the struggle to become the author of one's own world, to be able to create one's own meanings, to pursue cultural alternatives amid the cultural politics of everyday life (p. 39).

The second reason why "critical" belongs with "collaborative autonomy" in L2 education concerns the "what" of the term, that is, what students autonomously collaborate about. Benson (1997) disapproves of reductive approaches to autonomy that deal solely with technical aspects without realizing that the concept is a social one as well, a concept with impact on how people view the world around them and on how they act. In systems theory (Kauffman, 1980), it is acknowledged that one part of a system cannot change without changes occurring in other parts of the system. As teachers of autonomy we have to be open to the fact that, in developing autonomy, learners will develop their own approach to learning. This can at times lead to Freirian social activism (Freire, 1970). In the same way, cooperation can be seen as not only a good way to learn; it can also be recommended as a good way to live and to view the world. For instance, some scholars in the area of CL (e.g., Sapon-Shevin, 1999) advocate that cooperation be taught as a value. Further, groups can serve as a forum to help students critically analyze their world, and, based on their analysis, then use the power of their group to speak and act powerfully. As Kohn (1993, p. 9) states, "Students should not only be trained to live in a democracy when they grow up; they should have the chance to live in one today." In this way, via their academic education, students can learn to value and enact the skills and attitudes necessary to be active citizens who exercise their rights and responsibilities in a society where cooperation is prized over competition. Thus, autonomy, cooperation, and related topics become classroom themes as well as classroom methods.

Thus what starts as a way of giving students more control over their learning, through critical collaborative autonomy becomes a more expansive educational ideology which can engender sociocultural and political changes (see Santos, 1992 for an analysis of how the critical and ideological are treated in different domains). Our personal stance is that, while we do not start out with social activism as the "how" or "what" of our teaching, we recognize its eventual potential and welcome it as a balancing and developmentally healthy extension of living critically in the world. Some readers may feel that this may sound like cultural imposition; however we believe such a view of critical collaborative autonomy promotes development for students and educators everywhere.

Conclusion

In this article, we have discussed the paradigm shift towards learner-centeredness, the foundation of pedagogy to promote learners' autonomy. We have considered how students can benefit from collaborating, how ideas from cooperative learning can enhance that collaboration, why collaboration and learner autonomy make a good match, how teachers can facilitate autonomy, and why a critical component complements collaboration and autonomy.

We offer the term "critical collaborative autonomy" because we believe the concepts embodied within it will have a generative effect, inspiring us to realize its potential. Since "participation precedes learning" (Bateson, 1994, p. 41) we have looked at how we might engage students incrementally in ever more intensive participation with others to critically examine and improve themselves and their learning communities. We believe that this participation is on a developmental trajectory toward critical collaborative autonomy.

Teachers can support this by doing exploratory teaching and action research to find ways to support critical collaborative autonomy. A look into most classrooms, even after the 20th century changes we mentioned earlier, reveals that many students still are not participating in shaping their own education. Although educational systems in both the west and the east need to promote collaborative autonomy, critical approaches are often met with resistance instead of being welcomed. However, we believe that through increasing students' autonomy within a community of learners, everyone will be enriched through synergistic and critical collaboration, thus continuing the progress witnessed in the past century. L2 educators can be a factor in that progress.

Acknowledgements

We are grateful to Thomas Farrell for feedback on an earlier draft and to two anonymous reviewers who were constructively critical and collaborative. Murphey's research has been supported by annual Pache I-A grants from Nanzan University since 1995.

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(Received January 28, 2000; revised May 11, 2000)

Appendix 1 - List of Cooperative Learning Websites and Listservs

1. Gan Siowck Lee's Home Page for Educators. Lee has compiled lots of good resources on CL, including some of her own work. http://pppl.upm.edu.my/~gansl/cl.html

2. International Association for the Study of Cooperation in Education (IASCE). Links to a site with lots of papers on CL and computers. http://miavx1.acs.muohio.edu/~iascecwis/

3. Perspectives on Hands-On Science Teaching by David L. Haury and Peter Rillero. http://www.ncrel.org/skrs/areas/issues/content/cntareas/science/eric/eric-toc.htm

4. Richard Felder's Homepage. Felder teaches engineering at North Carolina State (USA) University. Lots of good stuff here related to CL. http://www2.ncsu.edu/unity/lockers/users/f/felder/public/RMF.html

5. Theory and Practice by University of Athabasca, Canada.
http://ccism.pc.athabascau.ca/html/ccism/deresrce/theory.htm

6. Center for Social Organization of Schools at the Johns Hopkins University. For more than 25 years the Center has conducted programmatic research to improve the education system, as well as developing curricula and providing technical assistance to help schools use the Center's research. The site includes information

on the Center for Research on the Education of Students Placed at Risk (CRESPAR) as well as Success For All and Roots & Wings. http://scov.csos.jhu.edu/

7. Cooperative Learning Center at the University of Minnesota (USA). Co-Directors: Roger T. Johnson and David W. Johnson. http://www.clcrc.com/

8. Active and Cooperative Learning by Bridget M. Smyser. http://www.wpi.edu/~isg_501/bridget.html

9. I is for Interaction - Not Isolation. Words on Cooperative Learning and Technology. http://137.48.46.72/htmldocs/techcoop.html

10. Cooperative/Collaborative Learning by Susan Ledlow and Neil Davidson. http://www2.emc.maricopa.edu/innovation/CCL/CCL.html

11. Kagan Cooperative Learning. This site offers a newsletter, a Q&A section, workshop information, and the chance to buy CL and related material, e.g., Multiple Intelligences. http://www.kagancooplearn.com/

12. The Cooperative Learning Network. This is an association of colleagues at Sheridan College, Ontario, Canada, who model, share, support, and advocate the use of cooperative learning. It includes the TiCkLe (Technology in Cooperative Learning) Guide. http://www.sheridanc.on.ca/coop_learn/cooplrn.htm

13. Computer Supported Collaborative Learning. This site contains papers from a 1995 conference. http://www-cscl95.indiana.edu/cscl95/toc.html

14. Ted Panitz's Homepage. Panitz teaches mathematics at Cape Cod (USA) Community College. His page includes two E-books, one on CL and one on Writing across the Curriculum. Also included are some of the wide-ranging internet discussions that he has put together across several Lists. http://www.capecod.net/~tpanitz/tedspage

15. Pete Jones' Home Page. Jones is Head of Modern Languages at Pine Ridge Secondary School in Ontario, Canada, and presents cooperative learning strategies that he and others have developed. http://www.geocities.com/Paris/LeftBank/3852/index.html

16. Centre for the Study of Learning and Performance is a research center at Concordia University, Canada. Their goal is to study and promote effective teaching/learning strategies through active association with schools, administrators, and teachers, particularly in the areas of cooperative learning and integrated technology. See the resources page: http://doe.concordia.ca/cslp

17. ERIC Abstracts on Cooperative Learning presents selected abstracts on cooperative learning prepared by the Association on Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD). http://www.ascd.org/services/eric/ericcoo.html

18. Mid-Atlantic Association for Cooperation in Education (MAACIE). The site includes articles from MAACIE's Newsletter. http://www.geocities.com/~maacie/

19. Program for Complex Instruction, Stanford University (USA). This site features the work of Elizabeth Cohen, Rachel Lotan, and their colleagues focusing on the sociology of groups, in particular the treatment of status differences among group members. http://www.stanford.edu/group/pci/

20. Rikki Ashley's Cooperative Learning Homepage. Basic information on CL plus an assortment of activities. http://members.home.net/riketa/index.htm

21. George M. Jacobs' website. Go to the CL section for articles on CL. http://www.geocities.com/Athens/Thebes/1650/index.htm

22. Cooperative Learning Listserve. Those interested in an international LISTSERV on CL may by sending an e-mail message to: <majordomo@jaring.my>. Include in the body of the message: SUBSCRIBE CL. All postings to the list should be sent to: <CL@jaring.my>.

Evidence of Accommodation to L2 Pragmatic Norms in Peer Review Tasks of Japanese Learners of English

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This paper reports on a project examining written peer reviews by Japanese learners of English and is a partial replication of a study conducted by Johnson (1992) on compliments and politeness in peer reviews of native English speaker writers. In addition, this project focuses on the effect of instruction. The literature on the teaching of L2 pragmatic norms, particularly in a foreign language environment, lacks information on the effect of instruction in academic writing skills on the learners' production, a lack which this study attempts to remedy. The first aim is to assess the learners' use of the speech acts of complimenting, agreeing and disagreeing, and making corrections, as well as the complimenting discourse strategies the learners used when correcting their peers' texts. The second aim is to assess the effects of writing instruction administered within the learners' Intensive English Program. The effect of instruction is examined specifically with regards to the use of the syntactico-semantic device "I think."

Johnson (1992)による、賛辞と丁寧さに関する外国語学習者同士の相互評価の研究を参考に、本論文では、日本人英語学習者による学習者同士の相互評価を考察した。さらに、特に外国語の分野においては、第二言語のプラグマティックス教育の、学術的ライティング能力への効果についての先行研究が十分とは言えず、本研究では、この効果も研究対象とした。研究の目的は、学習者の賛辞、同意、反意、訂正などの発話行為や賛辞ストラテジーを調べ、さらに、ライティング授業の効果を調べることである。授業効果については特に"I think"という表現を取り上げた。

Academic writing programs for learners of English commonly include peer review tasks, whether these are performed orally in pairs/groups or in writing about classmates' essays. The motivation for this task type is that presumably the learners will become more competent at making evaluations of their own essays. However this task could present difficulties for English language learners for at least two reasons. First, the cultural background of the learners may lead them to expect feedback on their writing only from their teachers (Nelson & Carson, 1998). Although the notion that peers are a legitimate source of feedback on writing tasks has become a feature of contemporary American approaches to the teaching of writing, it may not be understood or welcomed by learners with different cultural expectations. Second, even native English speaker (NES) writers may experience difficulties when suggesting that corrections should be made to a peer's work. In the process of providing feedback, the peer's "face" has to be taken into consideration. Too much criticism can alienate the peer while insufficient suggestions for improvement may be discouraging and demotivating, leaving the writer feeling that his/her essay was not adequately reviewed. Furthermore, a low grade on the essay could result in the writer blaming the peer reviewer.

Clearly, peer reviews are not unproblematic as a classroom practice. Yet many teachers currently use peer reviews as a standard practice in their writing classes in English as a second/foreign (ESL/EFL) language contexts. The use of peer editing has been and continues to be a recommended activity in many ESL writing programs (Fowler & Aaron, 1998). As suggested above, however, what may appear to be a valuable activity may be compromised by a number of aspects, and L2 writing teachers must make informed decisions as to the value of this activity for the learners in their classrooms. In teaching academic writing to non-native speakers of English (NNSs), teachers need to consider two important functions of peer reviews. The first is explicit: to help the learners develop their writing skills. The second is covert: to train them to adopt the norms of American academic writing which include being able to critique and offer corrections for their own essays as well as for peers. The two functions are linked; presumably the second will facilitate the first. The current study addresses the more covert dimension of peer review, that is, the learners' adoption and use of the L2 pragmatic norms associated with critiquing a peer's essay.

This exploratory report examines written peer reviews by 19 Japanese learners of English enrolled in an Intensive English program at a Japanese university, and is a partial replication of a similar study conducted by Johnson (1992) on compliments and politeness in peer reviews of NES writers. In addition to following some of the procedures in Johnson's study, this project also includes a focus on the effect of instruction. The literature on the teaching of L2 pragmatic norms, particularly in a foreign language environment (see Kasper, 1997; Bouton, 1994; Tateyama, Kasper, Mui, Tay & Thananart, 1997; Sato & Beecken, 1997) lacks information on the effect of instruction in academic writing skills on the learners' production. Although limited, this study attempts to supply some information about instruction effects in the EFL situation.

Here the peer reviews are analyzed for the use of the speech acts of complimenting, showing agreement and disagreement, and giving corrections, as well as for complimenting discourse strategies. The aims are, first, to assess the frequency of these speech acts and discourse strategies in the learners' texts[1] and, second, to assess the effect of instruction on the writing lessons. The effect of instruction is taken up in particular with regards to one teaching point, the use of the syntactico-semantic device[2] "I think." Within the context of the goals of the learners' EFL writing course, this exploratory study asks if the learners demonstrate evidence of adoption of American rhetorical style. As for the specific syntactico-semantic device, an important question concerns evidence of progress towards NES norms in its use.

An assumption of the present study is that accommodation to the norms of an American-influenced academic writing style with regards to the targeted items constitutes evidence of willingness to adopt L2 pragmatic norms. It is beyond the scope of this paper to address the long-term effects of instruction. Given that the learners involved in this study continued in academic writing classes for two more terms and then another term in their second year, it seems reasonable to assume that a majority of them will seek to internalize the norms. However, further research is strongly warranted. Either a longitudinal study of a similar EFL group or a follow-up study of the same group in their final year at university would be useful to assess more completely the effect of instruction in academic writing.

Issues in Peer Review Tasks

Assessment of Pragmatic Norms

The assessment of pragmatic norms both in spoken and written modalities is problematic, for NESs as well as for NNS learners of English (McNamara, 1997). McNamara (1997) points out that in any performance assessment, the "intrinsically social nature" of interactions must be taken into consideration. For example, in an oral interview situation a NES interviewer might ask two Asian students, one male and one female, to make arrangements to go to the movies together. The subsequent silences, disfluencies, and slow speech are clear indications that sociocultural dimensions are likely to be hindering their target language production. Just how the social nature of face-to-face interactions are to be taken into consideration remains to be resolved within the context of testing of communicative competence.

In addition to the question of what the assessment of pragmatic norms should measure, there is also the problem of how to do so; that is, what type of instrument is needed. Comprehension measurement instruments have included tests or questionnaires which call upon informants to rate or rank choices of appropriate pragmatic behavior (see Kasper & Dahl, 1991, for a review). NNS responses are then compared with those of NESs. With regards to production, NNSs' pragmatic behavior is typically assessed by Discourse Completion Tests (DCT), role plays, and simulations. Although Hudson, Detmer & Brown (1995) have developed a multitrait, multimethod approach utilizing role play and self-assessment, there are still questions of reliability and validity which all self-report instruments raise.

Still another concern is the language of the instrument (L1? L2?) and the question of whose norms should be adopted. Within interlanguage pragmatics the issue of whether learners should adopt the norms of the target language community or some yet-to-be defined international community remains controversial. Mey (1985, 1993) has argued that pragmatic norms de facto entail a prescriptive approach to language use. However, such a neocolonial perspective has been found to be less than acceptable by Kachru (1982), among others, particularly with regard to the new Englishes in the world.

The assumption that NNSs seek to accommodate to NES pragmatic norms has been embedded in most of the research on second language acquisition and on pragmatic ability (see Kasper & Schmidt, 1996, p. 156). This assumption has recently been questioned by several researchers (see LoCastro, 1998b). Masumi-So (1998) recommends that contact norms should be co-constructed through discourse and behavior[3] and Peirce (1995) claims that adoption of L2 pragmatic norms cannot be assumed. In her research on immigrants to Canada, Peirce found that learners may diverge from target language norms when they experience conflict and incongruence between their L1 norms and those of the L2 community, particularly in situations related to the creation of their self-identity in their new community and in work environments. Consequently, although it must be acknowledged that problems of assessment of the L2 learners' pragmatic ability remain unresolved, for the moment self-report data and production in written tasks are arguably suitable measurement instruments for the present study.

Peer Review Activities

Previous studies of peer reviews focus on response groups. Here groups of learners (perhaps four or five) read one another's essays and then discuss the essays in the group, making oral comments. Carson and Nelson (1994) address the issue of cross-cultural differences with regards to collaborative learning, specifically in the context of writing groups. They argue that learners from such countries as Japan and China, which tend to be collectivist, in-group oriented cultures, may provide overly negative feedback to peers in writing groups when these classmates are perceived as out-group members. More recently, Nelson and Carson (1998) looked into ESL students' perceptions of feedback in writing groups. In this case, Spanish-speaking (Mexican and Argentinian) and Chinese students indicated preference for negative (i.e., corrective) feedback from peers and preferably from their teachers. Negative feedback, rather than compliments, was viewed as more helpful to the learners in improving their essays.

Politeness Theory and Face Threatening Acts in Written Texts

Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory of linguistic politeness provides the theoretical framework for this study, in particular, the decision to examine the use of agreement, compliments and complimenting discourse strategies by NNS informants in the peer review tasks. According to Brown and Levinson, compliments comprise a politeness strategy to redress face-threatening acts (FTA). As Johnson (1992, p. 54) explains, a FTA in a text genre such as a peer review report can be viewed as constituting two types. The first is a global FTA, that is, the entire review or report is a FTA in that it may involve criticism, corrections, and suggestions for improvement. The second is a specific Speech Act, that is, individual criticisms or corrections could be interpreted as FTAs. Consequently, to redress or mitigate the FTA, whether global or specific, compliments are observed at both levels of the text: complimenting discourse strategies at the global level (for example, starting a peer review with a series of positive comments) and individual compliments at the speech act level within the text ("It was easy to understand and stimulating" [Johnson, 1992, p. 57]). The present study also includes an analysis of the instances of the use of corrections based on the assumption that this speech act is an explicit enactment of criticism.

From analysis of her data Johnson identified five discourse strategy categories and three strategies for redressing specific FTAs (Tables 1 and 2).

For redressing global FTAs, Johnson found two types of strategies in her informants' essays. One or more of these strategies were used by her informants.The compliments functioned as softeners before criticisms and suggestions for changes were offered. In addition to Johnson's interest in

Table 1: Examples of Strategies for Redressing Specific FTAs (from Johnson, 1992)

I-A: good news/bad news pairing	"There is a lot of good information in your paper, and it is clear you understand the research, but I would like to see more of your thoughts . . ." (p. 65)
I-B: good news/bad news chunking	No example given: strategy similar to I-A, but involving larger chunks of text. (p. 65)
I-C: compliment-as-a-rationale for suggestion	"Another way [to improve the paper] would be to expand your explanation of most of your topics with details and examples. In general, I like the topics that were expanded and explained the most." (p. 65)

Table 2: Examples of Strategies for Redressing Global FTAs (from Johnson, 1992)

II- A: opening strategy	"I liked your paper." (p. 66) "I thoroughly enjoyed reading your paper." (p. 66)
II-B: closing strategy	"I found your paper to be very interesting." (p. 67) "A very interesting paper." (p. 67)

compliments and complimenting discourse strategies, the author of the present study was motivated to include the speech acts of agreement/disagreement for two reasons. First, the learners' essays in the current study as well as those in another study (LoCastro, 1999) tend to include an explicit statement of agreement. A pragmatic analysis of the use of this speech act suggests that, from the point of view of the peer review writer, expressing agreement is a form of redressive action to mitigate the implied global face-threat of the criticism of the actual peer review. Presumably, by agreeing with the writer, the peer thereby implicates his/her own face as well. If the writer is "wrong" in some way, then so is the peer reviewer. The speech act of agreement can also function as a strategy to redress specific FTAs. In particular, it is often used as a softener before subsequent disagreement (for example, "yes, it's beautiful, but . . .") (Pomerantz, 1984). Note that formulaic routines such as "yes, . . . but . . ." can also signal an oppositional stance. However, as intonation is an important factor in assigning pragmatic meaning and because the data consisted of written texts, it is not possible to take this possibly confounding variable into consideration in this study. Despite the fact there are no comparable statistics in Johnson's study for the frequency of use of the speech act of agreement or disagreement by NESs, the Japanese learners' essays were analyzed for occurrences of agreement as well as the explicit expression of lack of agreement, that is, disagreement.

The view that compliments and complimenting discourse strategies entail linguistic politeness in written language use is supported by other researchers such as Hyland (1998) and Myers (1989) who claim that mitigation, a form of linguistic politeness, serves to soften FTAs in written academic discourse, as seen in the use of impersonal phrases ("It seems to be the case that . . .") and the inclusive "we" ("We have documented . . ."). These linguistic devices carry out the interpersonal function (see Halliday, 1985) of preserving the face needs of the addressee and maintaining rapport. One category of the forms are syntactico-semantic devices such as "I find," "I believe," and "I assume." Johnson (1992, p. 62) found "I think," "I feel," and "I found" in the data she examined. A commonly held view of these devices (see Johnson, 1992; LoCastro & Sasaki, 1998; Hyland, 1998) is that they are used to hedge the commitment of the speaker to the truth of a proposition. However, a more appropriate view, suggested by Johnson, is that they are also used to compliment and to signal agreement—to redress potential FTAs. According to Johnson (1992), writers "make explicit to their audience that they are offering a *personal* opinion, and that this opinion may not be shared by others . . . (p. 62). Such strategies mitigate a potential FTA by equalizing the P[ower] variable" (her italics, my addition of "power"). In other words, the writer humbles him/herself, thus signaling deference to the addressee or reader. The FTA is mitigated and presumably the "bad news" is more likely to be accepted by the peer.

Japanese-English Pragmatic Norms[4]

Studies of face-threatening acts such as disagreements and corrections performed by Japanese learners of English indicate that there are differences between the learners' performance of the speech acts and the NESs' performance. This suggests that both pragmatic transfer from the Japanese language as well as different views of social relationships may be encoded in the preferred realization strategies of the two cultures (Beebe & Takahashi, 1989a & b; Takahashi & Beebe, 1993). In a study of chastisement and disagreement, Beebe and Takahashi (1989a) investigated American and Japanese performance of these two FTAs and some important differences were found between the two groups.

One finding was that the Americans were not always more direct or more explicit than the Japanese. Nikula (1997) obtained similar findings in her comparison of Finnish learners of English and NESs and speculated that this was possibly the result of sociocultural differences and/or the effects of low proficiency. Beebe and Takahashi's data (1989a) suggests that Japanese do not always avoid disagreement (also see LoCastro, 1987) or critical remarks, especially if a higher status person is speaking to someone with lower status. Further, of particular interest for the present study, Beebe and Takahashi report (1989a) that the Americans were found to use compliments and praise more often than the Japanese.

In a related article (1989b), Beebe and Takahashi compared Japanese and American performance of the act of giving embarrassing information in status-unequal situations. They found that the Americans tended to use more positive remarks, more softeners, and, most importantly, fewer explicit criticisms (1989b, p. 113) when addressing a higher-status interlocutor. Two patterns emerged: (a) the use of a questioning strategy to express disagreement, and (b) a quantitative difference in the use of hints to convey embarrassing information. The Japanese used hints differently and more frequently.

In a third study on correction (1993), again with status unequals, Takahashi and Beebe claim that "the most noticeable difference is that 9 out of 14 Americans (64%) prefaced their correction with at least one positive remark" (1993, p. 141). Only 13% of the Japanese working with Japanese subjects did so. Takahashi and Beebe conclude that this is an example of pragmatic transfer from Japanese. The other result with some bearing on the current study concerns the use of softeners to mitigate the force of an FTA, where evidence of transfer from Japanese is also clear, particularly the style-shifting which occurred according to interlocutor status.

While this is by no means an exhaustive review of the literature on Japanese-American English pragmatic norms (see also, for example, Clancy, 1986), the results of the studies support the generation of research questions for the study described in the next sections.

Research Questions

There are two research questions that motivated the present study:

Research Question One. What speech acts and forms of mitigation do Japanese learners of English use in written peer reviews?

Research Question Two: Is there any evidence of effect of instruction, signaling that the learners seek to accommodate to L2 pragmatic norms?

Method

Subjects

The subjects comprised an intact class of 19 Japanese first year students attending International Christian University (ICU), a bilingual Japanese-English university in Tokyo. From diverse majors, they were enrolled in a 16-hour-a-week Intensive English Language program as well as other classes. One third of the class was male, and two thirds female, reflecting the overall ratio of the student population at the university. Regarding the learners' initial English language proficiency, at the time of this research the TOEFL scores for the ICU students averaged 550, ranging from a low of 500 to a high of 590. The two teachers[5] instructing the learners openly discussed their desire to conduct a small research project during the term. For a detailed analysis of speech act usage over time, four learners (two female and two male) were selected at random from the 19 learners in the class.

Instruction

The subjects had just begun their college life and one of the main purposes of the Intensive English program was to develop their awareness and understanding of academic tasks in the English language. The integrated program can be considered as a form of acculturation to the English language for academic purposes. The ten-week term was split up into the following three-to-four-week topic areas: (1) educational values, (2) critical thinking, and (3) argumentation. The classes met for two 70-minute periods per week. In addition, a third class on academic writing met once a week for 70 minutes for the entire 10 weeks. For the three classes, the learners had one teacher, the author of this study, and although separately labeled "Reading and Discussion" (RD) and "Writing" for administrative purposes, the two types of classes were taught in an integrated manner. Furthermore, the same group of learners also met twice a week with the second teacher for "Reading Strategies" and "Reading Comprehension" classes, each for 70 minutes. The second teacher collaborated with the author by explicitly reinforcing what the learners were studying in the RD and Writing classes through use of related material and by adjusting her lesson content to complement the lessons used with the RD and Writing classes.

In all skill areas the learners were expected to become competent in the use of situationally appropriate L2 language forms. Educational values and critical thinking classes aimed at developing skills for such tasks as eliciting questions, expressing disagreement, and articulating challenges to unexamined thinking and statements. Argumentation was taught both as a content topic as well as a process they were expected to adopt and use in essay writing and in group discussions. The once-a-week academic writing class directly taught the learners to accommodate to the norms of Western academic rhetorical styles in writing essays.

Instruction in academic writing consisted of four sources of input: (a) the textbook (Fowler & Aaron, 1998), (b) classroom instruction, (c) written feedback on their essays from the teacher, and (d) oral feedback from the teacher during writing tutorials. In addition, since the program included weekly lectures for listening comprehension practice, the content of at least two of the lectures also provided a source of input as they focused on details of Western versus Eastern rhetorical styles of academic writing (LoCastro, 1998a). Here is an example of the information provided to the learners in the textbook that is specifically related to the peer review tasks.

Commenting on Others' Writing

1. Be sure you know what the writer is saying. If necessary, summarize the paper to understand its content.
2. Read closely and critically.
3. Unless you have other instructions, address only your most significant concerns with the work.
4. If you point out every flaw you detect, the writer may have trouble sorting out the important from the unimportant.
5. Be specific. If something confuses you, say why. If you disagree with a conclusion, say *why*.
6. (deleted)[6]
7. (deleted)
8. Word your comments supportively. Question the writer in a way that emphasizes the effect of the work on you, the reader . . . and avoid measuring the work against a set of external standards.
9. Be positive as well as honest. Instead of saying "This paragraph doesn't interest me," say "You have a really interesting detail here that seems buried in the rest of the paragraph." And tell the writer what you like about the paper (Fowler & Aaron, 1998, pp. 80-81).

Such "advice pages" are found throughout the textbook and the learners were asked to refer to this particular page when they were engaged in writing the peer reviews used in this study.

At both the macro level of the intensive English for academic purposes program and the micro level of individual class sessions, a major assumption is that the program encourages the learners to adopt the pragmatic norms of the target language academic community. This expectation underlies all the classes of the intensive English program.

Teaching Point

The specific example of instruction on L2 pragmatic norms used in this study involves a syntactico-semantic device frequently found in the essays of Japanese learners of English: "I think." This is a direct translation of *to omou* in Japanese, a phrase which occurs with high frequency in both spoken and written L1 discourse (Netsu & LoCastro, 1997; LoCastro & Sasaki, 1998) where it usually functions as a hedge to mitigate statements of opinion. Although "I think" does appear in sentence-initial position in essays and talk in NS English, Japanese learners tend to overuse it, as the data collected demonstrated, and, moreover, have difficulty using alternate expressions, limiting themselves to "I think" (LoCastro & Sasaki, 1998). The use and misuse of this device was made a teaching point in four lessons. Some suggestions of alternative phrases, such as "I believe" or "perhaps" were made; they were not, however, the focus of any lesson. In the learners' fluency journals, kept for extensive writing purposes and to promote meta-awareness of L2 features, they were asked to comment on the following questions in three separate entries:

1. What are the differences among the following words: fact, opinion, and belief?
2. How do you feel about learning to give your opinion in a Western style in group discussions and in general?

These two questions address possible cross-cultural differences in the conceptualization of the three concepts as well as in the learners' articulated concerns about giving opinions, a speech act they perceive as common among NESs, and one which they claim to aspire to use with fluency.

3. Why do you think Japanese learners tend to use "I think" frequently when they write or talk?

With regards to this question, the teacher had not yet explicitly addressed the use of "I think" in class activities. Following this inductive approach to the use of the syntactico-semantic device, the learners were then asked to make suggestions in a lesson for changes in an essay written by a student from a different class who had frequently used "I think." The following day, one point of the class discussion was the use of "I think" vis-à-vis the frequency of *to omou* in the L1.

Procedures

The 19 learners were assigned two peer reviews approximately one month apart, on April 20 and May 26, 1998, in order to assess their ability to write a peer review as well as the effect of instruction on "I think" as demonstrated in their writing. The learners were instructed to trade their essay drafts, read their partner's essay and then to write a letter (the peer review) to their partner following the instructions on the handout (see Appendix). The peer reviews were written in class, in English, with 40 minutes allotted for completion of the task. The learners signed their peer review letters.

Data Analysis

As mentioned, the decision to examine the speech acts of complimenting, agreeing/disagreeing, and correction in the analysis of the peer reviews was based partially on the study by Johnson (1992), who examined complimenting in NES peer review texts. In the present study it was assumed that the four speech acts would be sensitive to the effect of instruction. The learners had received instruction on American norms for writing and for feedback on the writing of drafts. The instruction on American norms specifically emphasized (a) complimenting an interlocutor, especially before performing an FTA, (b) showing disagreement when warranted, and (c) giving corrections, i.e., clear, precise feedback about grammar, spelling, organization, and content of a peer's essay.

Consequently, the occurrences of each speech act (compliments, corrections, signals of agreement and disagreement) as well as occurrences of complimenting discourse strategies were tallied for the peer reviews. In addition, occurrences of "I think" were counted. To answer the first research question, frequency data from four subjects are presented and discussed below, and, for the second research question, aggregate frequency data from the 19 learners in the class are presented to indicate change in response to instruction. Only descriptive statistics are used to compare the two sets of peer reviews by the four learners in this exploratory study. However, one-way adjusted chi square procedures are used to determine the significance of frequency differences for the counts of the aggregate data before and after instruction. It was not possible to carry out inter-rater procedures to determine the reliability of the coding.

Results and Discussion

The results of the data collection addressing the first research question are presented below. Here an analysis of the four learners' performance on the peer reviews indicates use of the targeted items. A discussion of these findings follows. Then, an aggregate view of the work of all 19 informants and their use of the syntactico-semantic device is presented and discussed, as the second research question concerning the effect of instruction is addressed.

Research Question One

What speech acts and forms of mitigation do Japanese learners of English use in written peer reviews?

Results of the analysis of the tasks of the four subjects are displayed in Tables 3 through 6. Although case studies involving only four subjects do not produce generalizable data, an exploratory approach was adopted in order to generate a picture of the learners' behavior.

Momoko[7]

The speech acts used in Momoko's peer reviews are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Comparison of Peer Reviews for Momoko

Speech Acts	April Peer Review	May Peer Review
Compliments	4	5
Agreements	2	1
Disagreements	0	0
Corrections	2	9
Complimenting Strategies	II-A	II-A, II-B
I think	3	0

Between the April and May reviews, Momoko increased her use of compliments by one and decreased her use of agreement tokens by one. There were no instances of disagreement either in April or May. The most noticeable change was an increase in the use of corrections and complimenting discourse strategies. There was a decrease in the use of "I think" from three instances in April to none in May.

Shinsuke

The profile of Shinsuke's use of the targeted speech acts is found in Table 4.

Table 4: Comparison of Peer Reviews for Shinsuke

Speech Acts	April Peer Review	May Peer Review
Compliments	3	8
Agreements	2	2
Disagreements	1	0
Corrections	4	6
Complimenting Strategies	II-A	II-A, II-B, I-A, I-B
I think	9	3

Shinsuke used the speech act of agreement an equal number of times in April and May but decreased his use of disagreement by one between April and May. There was a noticeable increase in the use of compliments in the peer reviews and a decrease in the use of "I think" between April and May. The second peer review shows Shinsuke using more complimenting discourse strategies as well.

Mayumi

The speech acts used in Mayumi's peer reviews are shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Comparison of Peer Reviews for Mayumi

Speech Acts	April Peer Review	May Peer Review
Compliments	4	8
Agreements	1	1
Disagreements	0	1
Corrections	3	7
Complementing Strategies	II-A, II-B	I-B, II-A, II-B
I think	4	1

Mayumi did not use the speech acts of agreement or disagreement either in April or in May. However, there was a clear increase in the number of compliments and corrections and a small increase in the use of complimenting discourse strategies. She also used "I think" less frequently.

Tsuneo

Tsuneo showed no change in the use of the speech act of agreement but there was a small increase in the use of disagreement (Table 6). There was a noticeable increase in the use of correction and a decrease in the number of times (from four to one) in use of "I think." There was also a small increase in the use of complimenting discourse strategies.

Table 6: Comparison of Peer Reviews for Tsuneo

Speech Acts	April Peer Review	May Peer Review
Compliments	6	4
Agreements	1	1
Disagreements	0	1
Corrections	3	7
Complimenting Strategies	II-A, II-B	I-B, II-A, II-B
I think	4	1

Discussion of Research Question One

With regards to complimenting, either as a speech act or discourse strategy, the limited results suggest that there was a slight tendency to use compliments more frequently in the May reviews. In addition, all of the learners utilized the speech act of correction more frequently and the syntactico-semantic device "I think" less frequently in the second peer review, indicating a possible effect of instruction.

Research Question Two

Is there any evidence of effect of instruction signaling that the learners seek to accommodate to L2 pragmatic norms?

Effect of Instruction

Table 7 displays the aggregate findings from the analysis of the two peer review sets. At both times, 19 informants participated in writing the reviews.

Table 7: Aggregate Results for the Two Peer Reviews ($n = 19$)

Speech Acts	April Peer Review	May Peer Review
Compliments	72	81
Agreements	13	14
Disagreements	1	2
Corrections	46	128*

*Significant at $p < .05$

The data indicate that the informants used compliments, agreements, and disagreements in both sets of peer reviews with essentially the same frequency of occurrence. The noticeable difference concerns the corrections of their peers. There was a 178% increase in the number of corrections between the first and second peer reviews (chi square$_{crit}$, df 1= 3.84; chi square$_{obs}$, df 1= 38.64; $p < .05$), indicating a significant effect of instruction. The increase is greater than that for the number of compliments (12.5% between the April and May peer reviews).

Since the Johnson study did not assess correction, the increase in the use of corrections by the learners in the present study cannot be compared with other data. However, there seem to be four possible explanations for the increase. The first is the effect of instruction. Japanese learners of English tend to hesitate when asked to critique a peer's work in a public setting. Because of this tendency, instruction in the writing and discussion courses in the Intensive English program focused on helping them become more explicit in classroom tasks as well as in self and peer editing. Second, the teachers provided detailed feedback on the learners' work, behavior that the learners could have modeled. A third interpretation concerns stereotypes about Japanese use of face-threatening speech acts; specifically, it is assumed that they avoid such acts as correction, disagreement, and chastisement. However, the studies reported in LoCastro (1987), Beebe and Takahashi (1989a; 1989b) and Takahashi and Beebe (1993) suggest that such assumptions may be stereotypes. There may be less reticence than expected in using these FTAs. The research cited above also indicates that the Japanese learners used fewer hedges than the Americans did.

The informants in the present study were peers, i.e., status equals and in-group members. Thus, corrections of a peer's work may entail less attention to face. On one hand, as in-group status-equal peers from the same ethnic background, the informants might have expected to be less harsh and make fewer suggestions for corrections. On the other hand, because they are peers, they might have assumed their suggestions for corrections would be tolerated, even welcomed. It is well known that negative statements are better tolerated when coming from friends than from out-group members.

In addition, the corrections have to be considered in the context of the whole essays, that is, from the global point of view. Of the two sets of 19 essays, all but two informants placed their corrections in the middle sections, in between the introductions and conclusions, where most of the complimentary and agreement language behavior was found. Only two learners, one male and one female, noticeably deviated from that pattern, seemingly dispensing with face-redressive language, to zero in directly on corrections. The other 17 learners may have increased the number of corrections, modeling their behavior on what they had been taught and experienced in the tutorials with their teachers, while believing that the complimenting and other face-redressive behavior in the beginning and concluding paragraphs would override the face threat of the corrections. Retrospective interviews with the learners about their writing strategies in the peer reviews would be valuable if this exploratory study were to be replicated.

Finally, in an effort to attain the perceived norms of NES language use, it is possible the learners overused the speech act of correction in a form of "hypercorrection," that is, they may have made more suggestions for corrections than one might expect to find in a NES's peer review. Beebe and Takahashi (1989b, p. 119) label this type of language behavior a "stereotype-induced error." Here the learners may believe that NESs use more direct linguistic signals of criticism than would actually be found in NES or Japanese discourse. Further studies are needed to confirm this generalization.

Of the possible explanations it seems most likely that the increase in the use of corrections and the decrease in the use of "I think" are the result of instruction. The learners may have assumed that they had been asked to offer corrections (one even provided a numbered list) as the main goal of the peer review. There are no statistics on what NESs would produce in the same context, nor are there comparison data of what the Japanese EFL learners would do in a similar situation in a Japanese writing class. However, it is suggested that the learners focused on the instructed element, that is, suggesting corrections, and that they attempted to complete the assignment as they believed that it should be done.

Complimenting Discourse Strategies

The frequency of the 19 learners' use of complimenting discourse strategies in the peer reviews is shown in Table 8. These are aggregate figures; that is, for example, in the April essays, there were three learners who used the good news/bad news pairing strategy. It is to be noted that the learners may have used the same strategy more than once in their essays.

The figures suggest three areas of increase: strategies I-A (good news/bad news pairing), I-C (compliment-as-a-rationale-for-suggestion), and II-A (opening strategies). Here a comparison of the number of Japanese learners who used the strategies with that reported for the NESs in Johnson's (1992) study is possible. For the first strategy (I-A), about 40% of her informants used it once or twice (Johnson, 1992, p. 65). Of the 19

Table 8: Frequency of Learner Use of Complimenting Discourse Strategies (n = 19)

Complimenting Discourse Strategies	April	May
I. For redressing specific FTA		
I-A. Good news/bad news pairing	3	6
I-B. Good news/bad news chunking	5	5
I-C. Compliment-as-a-rationale for suggestion	0	5
II. For redressing global FTA		
II-A. Opening strategy	14	18
II-B. Closing strategy	4	5

informants in the present study, six (37%) used the good news/bad news pairing strategy in May, an increase over the three who used it in April. With regards to (I-B), Johnson found that 16% of her informants used it whereas 10 (58%) Japanese learners used it at least once. There was no change from the April to May essays. Concerning the compliment-as-a-rationale for suggestion strategy (I-C), Johnson claims that only one writer used it in the data she collected (Johnson, 1992, p. 66). In the present study, there were five informants who used it in the second peer reviews (Table 8). As for the redressing of global FTAs strategy, Johnson indicates that 84.3% of her informants used one or more opening compliments (1992, p. 66). In the April peer reviews, 14 (74%) made some kind of positive opening comment, whereas in the May data, 18 (95%) of the 19 learners used the opening complimenting strategy one or more times (in some cases more than one paragraph was composed of complimentary remarks). Concerning the closing complimenting strategy, Johnson found that 50% of the writers in her study used it (Johnson, 1992, p. 66), while a total of nine (47%) of the informants here utilized it.

Thus, the results in Table 8 suggest a slight tendency for the Japanese learners to use more of the strategies in comparison to the NESs in Johnson's study, the result perhaps of overgeneralizing from instruction which had sensitized them to "saying something positive" before making negative comments. In particular, the Japanese learners used the I-B strategy more frequently: 58% in comparison to 16% in Johnson's study. One likely explanation concerns the analytic framework. It is difficult to separate the good news/bad news pairing from the good news/bad news chunking strategy. Clearly, further research in the use of these strategies over a longer period of time (perhaps six months to a year) is necessary to assess the full extent of accommodation to L2 pragmatic norms.

It is also possible that the norms for this kind of task in English and Japanese are largely congruent, although there are no data available for the use of complimenting strategies in Japanese texts of the same genre. In general both Johnson's informants and those in the present study tended to prefer the global strategies, i.e., mitigating the face threat of the entire essay. These results support Brown and Levinson's (1987, p. 22) contention that mitigation is more likely to be implicated by a whole utterance rather than by individual markers. The peer reviews in a general way may implicate pragmatically that the peer reviewer is essentially complimenting and agreeing with the writer, while individual sentences may be critical and face-threatening.

In order to demonstrate actual strategy use by the informants, two examples of the peer reviews are presented below. These are both unedited, with the names changed. In both examples the first paragraphs are made up of discourse complimenting strategies while the second peer review demonstrates how such strategies can be used in the final paragraph as well.

Example 1

> Dear Yuki,
>
> I am very interested in your essay. You say "education for entering the college prevent HS students form more useful education in HS. And more Japanese lose their purpose in college because their purpose will be to entering college itself. And not only we but Japanese society need to make efforts to change this situation." That is good idea. I also really think so. I think now in many HS the end to enter the college justifies the means to study for *Ojuken* (study for entrance examinations) and not to study what we need truely. Your explain is very clear and what you want to say is well limited on a few things.
>
> But I want to told you some advice. In paragraph 4, you say many students do a club activity without studying because of lacking of purpose. But one of my friends says my purpose of college is to make friends, and to achieve that is more important than to study. Your opinion, and he has his own belief, that to study is more important in college is only your opinion. What do you think of this opinion? and How do you answer about this question. If you can answer clearly and add to the essay, your belief will be more effective, true, I think.

Another advise I want to say is about Paragraph I. It is good introduction, but I expect of you to add to your opinion, for example, from paragraph IV.

Example 2

Dear Motoko,

I have read your essay about democracy. Your point of view is that Japan is not democratic because there are some undemocratic issues in this country. The most excellent point of your essay is you tried thinking about democracy and making its definition. It is showing your honest attitude to the question previously given.

Let me comment the structure. You used two examples to strengthen your opinion. But the balance of 1st and 2nd is not good as to the amount. You might as well widen 1st or shorten 2nd. And you didn't need to divide the conclusion two parts since they can be connected as to the content. However, basic frame is very clear and easy to understand.

Next, grammatical issues, 5th paragraph, line 4, "democracy" should be changed into "democractic." 3rd paragraph, line 3, "can't, 4th paragraph line 1, "I'd." You should not use shortened expression in essay.

Spelling, there are no mistakes as far as I saw.

Let us move on to more details about the content. You criticized indirect system of election of the Prime Minister. But I don't think it is undemocratic because if members in the Diet are very similar to the general public, there are no problems using indirect system. The problem is, how to elect members in the Diet, not the indirect system itself, I think.

I have criticized your essay, but your claim is reasonable. I agree to your opinion to the most extent. Especially, the example of marine heliport in Okinawa is very persuasive. It is good example to convince people, because we know the problem to some extent. Thank you for reading this letter till the end.

In the first example the peer reviewer creates a first paragraph of compliments and a quotation from the classmate's essay, thereby demonstrating use of Johnson's opening strategy II-A. The second paragraph introduces some criticism of the writer's essay in the form of citing another opinion that is contrary to that of the writer. The peer reviewer appears to be using the opinion-as a strategy to get the writer to change or correct his/her essay. Citing an outside source may make the comment less threatening than if the peer reviewer directly commented on the writer's view. Here a sentence-final use of "I think" is observed. The third paragraph contains an example of a "good news/bad news pairing" (I-B) strategy. The peer reviewer compliments the writer's introduction before suggesting a correction.

The second peer review starts with a first paragraph composed of "good news" complimentary comments. The second paragraph is mixed. The second and third sentences together form an example of a good news/bad news pairing strategy. The last two sentences of the second paragraph do so as well, but in reverse, with a bad news/good news pairing.

The next two short paragraphs comment on grammar, lexis, and spelling. In the next to the last paragraph, the peer reviewer returns to the content and indicates disagreement with the writer's point of view. At the end of the fourth paragraph, there is a sentence-final use of "I think." However, its function here is ambiguous. It may be a hedge to soften the peer reviewer's statements, or it may function as a maximizer emphasizing that it is the peer reviewer's point of view. The final paragraph resembles the first; it is an example of use of the global closing strategy comprised of compliments (II-B).

The Syntactico-Semantic Device "I Think"

In addition to compliments, agreements, and complimenting discourse strategies to redress FTAs and disagreements and corrections to provide potentially unwelcome feedback, this report also examines the effect of instruction on a targeted syntactico-semantic device. In the data collected, there is a noticeable change in the number of tokens of the phrase "I think" and a slight increase in the use of related devices.

Table 9: Frequency of Learner Use of Syntactico-Semantic Devices

Phrases	April 20, 1998	May 26, 1998
I think	57	16
I guess	2	4
In my opinion	0	1
I feel	0	0

As "I think" had been a teaching point in parts of four lessons during the term, the effect of instruction can be observed as a 72% decrease in its use. However, the hoped-for outcome of an increase in the variety of syntactico-semantic devices used to carry out the function of mitigating the FTAs by the writer did not occur. As the author has demonstrated in other related studies (Netsu & LoCastro, 1997; LoCastro & Sasaki, 1998), "I think" is a complex, multifunctional pragmatic marker which warrants more attention in the teaching of English to Japanese learners.

Conclusion

This limited exploratory study suggests that the picture of the learners' progress in the direction of adopting L2 pragmatic norms for academic writing is mixed. The peer reviews for the four learners show a tendency towards increased use of the targeted speech acts and strategies. For the group as a whole the aggregate picture demonstrates a significant increase in the use of corrections with a smaller increase in use of compliments and complimenting strategies.

Second, and this is perhaps the main conclusion, there also appears to be an effect of instruction. The learners significantly increased the number of suggestions for corrections and decreased the use of "I think." Both were targets of the lessons in the writing course so it does appear that instruction may help learners move towards adoption of L2 pragmatic strategies.

As the learners had only been studying academic writing skills for one ten-week term, their progress would undoubtedly be slow in accommodating to the American-influenced pragmatic norms for such a writing genre. Ideally it would be useful to study how academic writing is taught in the learners' L1 to obtain comparison data; however the cultural practices in Japanese universities usually do not facilitate this type of collaborative research.

The question arises at this point whether the results of this limited study provide any insights into the learners' adoption of L2 pragmatic norms for critiquing a peer's essay. Given the assumption that suggesting corrections is a desirable feature of a peer review, it seems possible to argue that the informants' work shows a shift towards the targeted norms. Further, another tendency towards accommodation to the L2 norms is observable in the informants' decrease in the use of "I think." While these conclusions cannot be generalized beyond this study and its small sample size, they clearly suggest areas for further study and may encourage more explicit instruction and materials for the teaching of academic writing, in particular the difficult balance between corrective feedback and face-redressive strategies.

Further research on the value of peer reviews is clearly warranted, particularly in EFL contexts. If the purpose of such an activity is to provide feedback so that the novice EFL writers can learn to improve their own essays, then the question must be raised as to whether or not such an approach is the most effective in achieving that goal. From a cross-cultural perspective the studies of Carson and Nelson (1994) and Nelson and Carson (1998) as well as the present study suggest that some EFL or ESL learners may experience peer reviews, whether carried out orally or in writing, as a speech event that is alien to their cultural background. Consequently, teachers of writing must ask if the aim is to acculturate the learners to perform what is to them a new speech event, or to help the learners improve their academic writing skills, or to achieve both aims. This is an interesting pedagogical dilemma and is a subject for further research and debate. Despite the frequent use of the term "norms," too little research is available on the subject to inform classroom teachers' practices.

Acknowledgements

The author wishes to thank the two anonymous JALT Journal *reviewers for their valuable comments.*

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Notes

1. Unfortunately, the Johnson paper does not give statistics on the use of agreement and disagreement and thus a more complete comparative study is not possible.
2. Johnson (1992) uses the term "syntactico-semantic device." Another possible term would be "parenthetical verbs," following the practice in the literature on mitigation (Urmason, 1952).
3. While written texts do not involve the same degree of interactional co-construction of norms as spoken language does, there is nevertheless the presence of the audience which the writer must attend to in creating a written document.
4. The author is well aware of the danger of any discussion about Japanese learners of English bordering on the use of stereotypes, and has actually supported an alternative perspective (see LoCastro, 1996, for example). Further, the author is also aware of and agrees with Kubota's (1995) stance regarding what she labels the acculturation model for teaching ESL. The discussion in the present paper does not in any way imply that the infor-

mants *should* adopt the L2 norms; the study is an attempt to examine some classroom practices.

5. The author would like to acknowledge the help and cooperation of Atsuko Watanabe of International Christian University in carrying out this project.
6. The parts that have been deleted are not directly relevant to the present study.
7. Pseudonyms have been used.

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(Received March 18, 2000; revised June 12, 2000)

Appendix

Peer Review Task

Directions: You have been given the essay draft of another student who also has your essay. I would like you to write a letter to your classmate about his/her essay. After I look at your letter, your classmate will get the letter to read on Friday. In your letter, please comment on the following areas:

1. Make some positive comments as well as comments about how the writer (your classmate) could improve his or her essay.
2. Give some critical comments about grammar, spelling, word choice, the contents of the essay, the organization (introduction, body, and conclusion), development of the ideas, evidence of critical thinking, reading, and writing.
3. Suggest some corrections.
4. Look for the topic sentences and thesis statements (which should give the main idea of the entire essay). Comment on these.
5. Look for supporting evidence for ideas in the essay. Make suggestions about this important feature of an essay.
6. Finally, give your reaction to the essay.

The Impact of Input Modifications on Listening Comprehension: A Study of Learner Perceptions

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This paper investigates the impact of modified and authentic aural input on the perceptions of language learners in the classroom. The study is premised on the assumption that research perspectives need to differentiate between the conditions of second language learning in naturalistic and instructed or foreign language (FL) contexts. It is proposed that research into the role of input in foreign language learning must include the study of learner perceptions of, or attitudes to, different types of input as this is one of the crucial classroom variables which influences the process and outcome of learning. This article describes a study which was carried out over a period of eight weeks to explore the frequently made claim that authentic listening comprehension materials elicit more favorable attitudes from FL learners than mechanically or linguistically simplified—and supposedly more comprehensible—input. The subjects were university students of French and German. The findings of this limited study indicate that learners differentiate in their perception of input depending on the nature and presentation of input modifications. This has implications for the FL classroom and for future research in the field.

本論では、簡素化された音声インプット、オーセンティックな音声インプットの利用が、教室における学習者の考え・認識にどのような影響を及ぼすかを調べた研究を報告する。本研究は、自然な環境での第二言語習得と、授業環境での第二言語・外国語学習という状況によって、研究の視座は異なるべきであるとの考えを前提にしている。また、外国語学習におけるインプットの役割を対象にした研究においては、学習者がさまざまなイン

JALT Journal, Vol. 22, No. 2, November, 2000

プットに対して、どのような考え・態度を持っているかを考慮する必要があるとの考えに基づいている。学習者の考えが、学習内容を決定づけるほど大きな要因であるからである。「オーセンティックなリスニング教材へのほうが、簡素化され、より理解しやすくされた教材へよりも、学習者の反応・態度が良い」と広く考えられているが、本研究では、この考えについての調査を8週間にわたって行った。被験者はフランス語・ドイツ語を学習する大学生である。本研究の結果、簡素化されたインプットの内容と提示法によって、被験者はさまざまな考えを示すことが明らかになった。研究の結果は、外国語教育と今後の同分野の研究に役立つものである。

Over the past twenty years, the impact of input on comprehension and acquisition has become one of the main areas of study in second/foreign language acquisition (SLA/FLA) research (Gass, 1997). While it is hardly possible to argue against Gass' provocatively simple conclusion that "second language acquisition is shaped by the input one receives . . ." (Gass, 1997, p. 161), our understanding of the precise role of input in second/foreign language acquisition (SLA/FLA) is still at an early stage (Ellis, 1993). Although the importance of input in SLA /FLA is fully recognized, very little is actually known about the physical and mental operations taking place when learners receive and process input, or about the relationships among comprehension, intake and acquisition. Nor is there much certainty concerning the respective merits of different types of input.

Input research is multi-dimensional and multi-disciplinary. It is concerned with: (1) the perception, decoding and identification of sounds, with the selection and recognition of strings of sounds as symbols of the target language; and (2) the interaction between new input and existing knowledge of L1 and L2 structures, syntax and lexis, discourse schemata (Rost, 1990) of situational knowledge, contextual clues and general world knowledge (Sharwood Smith, 1986, 1993). No single research paradigm can fully address these issues, and contributions from speech recognition scientists, cognitive psychologists, psycholinguists, and educators are needed to develop a fuller understanding of the effects of input on language learning and acquisition than exists today (Chaudron, 1985a; Sharwood Smith, 1993; Rost, 1990).

Types of Input

The types of input which have been examined are broadly organized into three categories, namely input generated by native speakers (NSs) for communication with other NSs (this traditionally referred to as "authentic input"), speed-modified or controlled input, and linguistically modified input. The third category can be subdivided into premodified and interactionally modified input, with the former typically represented in language teaching materials prepared for classroom teaching, such as graded materials, and the latter a feature of direct NS/non-NS communication. Premodified input has also been referred to as pedagogically simplified or planned input (Ellis, 1993) and is characterized by simplification devices such as shorter sentences, reduction in subordination, avoidance of idiomatic expression, and replacement of low by high frequency vocabulary. Interactionally modified input has been appropriately characterized as elaborative input (Long & Ross, 1993) as it would typically contain elaborative linguistic and conversational adjustments (Long & Ross, 1993, p. 31 in particular). To date input research has been mostly concerned with the impact of these different types of input on comprehension and, to a lesser extent and with even less tangible results, on acquisition of language structures and, more recently, vocabulary in foreign language settings (Ellis, 1993, 1995).

Common sense seems to suggest that speed-controlled input and linguistically simplified language containing features such as reduced information, shorter sentences, high frequency vocabulary and other features of traditional "premodified input" should significantly enhance comprehension. Early studies have concentrated on comparisons between mechanical simplifications such as speed control and premodified input containing linguistic simplification (Long, 1985; Kelch, 1985; Griffiths, 1990). But while these studies have supported the facilitating impact of slower speech on comprehension, they have not provided unambiguous evidence for the comprehension-enhancing qualities of linguistically premodified input. It seems by no means certain that traditional linguistic simplification leads to cognitive simplification. In fact, evidence suggests that linguistic simplification can lead to a significant reduction in the contextual clues and redundancy which are normally present in natural speech, thus making linguistically simplified input at times more difficult to understand than other types of modified input (Long & Ross, 1993; Goodman & Freeman, 1993; Ellis, 1995; Gass, 1997). Regarding interactionally modified input, Pica, Young & Doughty (1987) point out that interactional modifications might contribute more significantly to comprehension than premodified non-interactional input, a claim put forward in 1983 by Long (1983), and, to some extent, supported by Loschky (1994) and Gass & Varonis (1994). Long & Ross' study (1993) takes the debate a decisive step further by pointing towards a qualitative difference between comprehension of premodified input compared with elaborative input. While both types of modified input lead to higher comprehension scores than non-modified input, premodified input is not consistently superior to elaborative input. Moreover, while premodified input seems to improve the comprehension of surface level content, elaborative input seems to facilitate deeper-level processing of content.

Input and Second/Foreign Language Acquisition

The relation between input or input modification and SL/FL acquisition presents a similarly complex picture. One of the most widely debated models of second language acquisition is Krashen's seminal Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985; see Ellis, 1990 for an overview) which states that language learners progress along a natural order of acquisition by being exposed to and understanding input that is structurally "a little bit beyond" them (the "i + 1" hypothesis). Although the model has been subjected to review and has attracted significant criticism, it has nevertheless provided focus for a large body of empirical research. But direct evidence for Krashen's hypothesis that "i+1"actually causes acquisition has remained limited (Chaudron, 1985a & b; White, 1984; Leow, 1993; Loschky, 1994). Initially, much work concentrated on the quantity of input of grammatical form and acquisition (Larsen-Freeman, 1985; Wagner-Gough & Hatch, 1975). Some studies have established a link between the frequency of morphemes in teacher input and morpheme acquisition by learners (Chaudron, 1986b) but overall the evidence for such a "mechanical" relation between input and acquisition is not strong.

Other studies concentrate on qualitative distinctions between input types and their respective impact on acquisition, leading also to a review and expansion of Krashen's concept of "i + 1." While Krashen focused more on the structural properties of input, Long, Loschky, Ellis and others place increasing emphasis on interactional input and the relation between the properties of this input and acquisition. Results, however, are either ambiguous or require further empirical substantiation. Loschky (1994), for instance, while arguing the case of interactional or negotiated input over premodified input, was not able to provide proof that greater L2 comprehension facilitated by interactional input led to greater acquisition of L2. Similarly Leow could not support the hypothesis that learners exposed to simplified written input would take in significantly more linguistic items than learners exposed to unmodified input (Leow, 1993), thus casting further doubt on the claim that simplified input facilitates intake and acquisition. Ellis (1993, 1995) has shifted the focus from acquisition of form to acquisition of vocabulary by investigating the impact of premodified and interactionally modified input. While there is some evidence that interactionally modified input facilitates acquisition and leads to acquisition of more words than premodified input, Ellis also points out that exposure to interactionally modified input takes more time than exposure to premodified input, thus raising questions concerning the efficiency of interactional over premodified input in the context of incidental vocabulary learning.

To summarize, research into how input, comprehension and second language acquisition are linked is at an early stage (Ellis 1993; 1995), and there is consensus that a "direct relation between input and acquisition" still awaits to be proven (Loschky, 1994, p. 304; also, and much earlier, Chaudron, 1985a, 1986a).

What Constitutes Optimum Material?

Finally, input research has a strong applied dimension as the issues it raises overlap with the debate in foreign language education on what constitutes optimum language learning material. Some studies have made the point that either authentic (i.e., unedited) materials or interactionally modified discourse should form the core of language classroom input. Goodman & Freeman, for instance, strongly recommend "authentic language events" (1993) and urge the teacher to create a context-rich language environment. Similarly, Leow briefly discusses the pedagogical implications of his findings (1993), and concludes that in the language classroom authentic materials are preferable to modified materials. These conclusions echo the findings of pedagogically oriented studies more specifically concerned with premodified input as a classroom variable. In their concern for language learning materials all these studies touch on the "authenticity debate" which has accompanied the communicative approach ever since it first entered the language classroom (for a recent discussion of the debate see Gallien, 1998).

Support of authentic materials as a function of a pedagogical strategy comes from several studies investigating text difficulty and the level and improvement of comprehension performance (Gallien, 1998; Allen, Bernhardt, Berry, & Demel, 1988; Yi, 1994; Kienbaum, Barrow, Russell, & Welty, 1986). Herron & Seay's study (1991) supports the claim that exposure to authentic materials has significant impact on the development of listening skills. Duquette, Dunnett, & Papalia (1989) provide evidence that even in children the use of authentic materials can have a positive impact on the development of lexis and linguistic structures. Yet other studies modify the exclusive value of authentic materials in classroom use. Suggestions to adopt a more gradual approach abound and have been debated both in theoretical papers and empirical studies (Davies, 1984; Lynch, 1988; Griffiths, 1990). Peacock investigates the relation between input and motivation and shows that while observed motivation increased significantly when authentic materials were used, learners nevertheless considered non-authentic materials significantly more interesting (Peacock, 1997). The need for a more differentiated approach to the use of authentic materials is also suggested by Bacon & Finneman's exploration of learner dispositions towards authentic input (Bacon & Finneman, 1990). The detailed factor analysis in their study demonstrates that learner differences must be included in any study of input and its effects on the learning process. And Ellis (1995) even goes so far as to suggest that using premodified input may be more efficient than interactionally modified input, a proposal with clear implications for classroom practice.

Input research needs to provide further clarification of the relationships among input, comprehension and acquisition of a second language. In addition, we need more empirical studies on classroom variables affecting learner responses to input, and on the affective dimension of learner-input interaction, a field that has so far received little attention (Bacon & Finneman, 1990, p. 459). Input research can indeed make a significant pedagogical contribution, as the pros and cons of input modifications lie so much at the heart of the debate on what constitutes successful language teaching and classroom language learning. It is therefore more than appropriate and timely to suggest that the inclusion of classroom-related and affective variables must be viewed as a key issue for input research and as a prerequisite for a fuller understanding of the effect of input in FLA. The present study aims to contribute towards bridging the gap between linguistic and pedagogic issues pertinent to the domain of input research by focusing on learner perceptions of authentic and modified types of input.

"Testing the Water"—Input in the Foreign Language Classroom

If we agree with Skehan that "classrooms and materials [can be] postulated as having a direct effect upon learning" (Skehan, 1989, p. 119; also Entwistle, 1988, p. 248), it becomes crucial to explore learner responses to, or perceptions of, input as these may play a significant role in the learner's overall disposition towards the language class and the language learning process.

Research Focus

Research into the impact of input in the language classroom needs to differentiate between teacher input in presentation and interaction mode, input provided by other learners and, importantly, input, either modified or authentic, provided by printed or recorded sources. These types of input constitute the linguistic environment of the foreign language classroom which facilitates learning. The present study concentrates on input provided by recorded sources typically used for listening comprehension activities. In line with the argument developed in the preceding section, the concern of the study is not to explore further the relation between input and acquisition, but rather to contribute to the discussion of the relation between input and learner responses.

Research Questions

The research questions addressed in this report are:

1. Does the type of input impact significantly on learner performance?
2. Does the type of input impact significantly on learner perceptions regarding the source or text in question and its function in the learning content?

Regarding student belief we ask:

1. Do students believe simplified texts to be easier than authentic texts?
2. Do students believe simplified texts to be richer in content than authentic texts?
3. Do students believe simplified texts to be more appealing than authentic texts?
4. Do students believe simplified texts to be more suitable for language learning than authentic texts?

Method

Participants

While most studies in SLA/FLA choose groups of participants learning one particular language, the present study is based on a convenience sample of two different learner groups, one learning French and the other learning German. Both learner groups were exposed to identical procedures to enable us to make cross-language comparisons.

The subjects were UK university students between 18 and 21 years old who were studying French and German. A total of 48 students participated in the study (French: 19; German: 29). The gender distribution was as follows: French: five male, 14 female; German: seven male, 22 female. The French group was composed of an intact French class at Abertay University; the German group consisted of members of a class at St. Andrews University. The French students listened and answered questionnaires as part of their class routine. The German students were volunteers. All participants had studied the target language (TL) for four to five years at secondary school level and for at least one semester at university. The German group was more advanced than the French group, having achieved higher grades at the final stage of secondary school, and having embarked on a full-time language and literature course. The French group had entered university with lower grades, and was studying the language in a less intensively language-focused course. Scores achieved on listening comprehension during the test period formed part of the French group's assessment; however this was not the case for the volunteer students from the German group.

Materials

Studies contrasting authentic and non-authentic input often tend to expose subjects to two separate sets of documents, namely to a set of authentic documents and to a set of didactic documents as found in course books, without ensuring that there are textual or thematic similarities between the two sets (Herron & Seay, 1991; Peacock, 1997). This procedure reduces the internal validity of the study.

To eliminate this flaw and to enhance the robustness of our study, eight authentic texts per language were chosen from the cassettes accompanying the language learning magazine *Authentik*[1] and were presented to the respective groups in *either* the original "authentic" version *or* one of two modified versions ("slowed" or "linguistically simplified"). The texts were news reports and interviews, with or without background noise, from radio or TV and none exceeded three minutes. The themes were varied, as were the deliveries. The chosen texts introduced topics of general interest and were at a level of difficulty which we researchers, as experienced teachers, considered to be adequately challenging to the participants.

Four of the eight chosen documents per language were then re-recorded by the researchers at a reduced speech rate, using the transcripts given in *Authentik*. The German students were familiar with the recorders' voices for this set of materials, but the recorders for the French material were unknown to the students.

The re-recorded texts were on average one third longer than the original version. These four texts per language constituted the set of "slowed input." The remaining four texts per language, the "simplified input" set, were rewritten and linguistically simplified by applying commonly used devices of linguistic simplification (see below). At the same time all efforts were made in this process to avoid some of the typical pitfalls of linguistic simplification such as overt simplification or stilted language (for a discussion of this dilemma see, for instance, Long & Ross, 1993).

Simplification Procedures

For both languages, syntactic and grammatical structures were modified by reducing the degree of subordination, the number of infinite clauses and pronominal references; lexis was either simplified, explained or exemplified. These modifications yielded texts which had a higher number of T units and a lower word count than the original (see Tables 1a and 1b), thus avoiding one of the problems posed by traditional linguistic simplification, reduced content. Text logic and coherence were preserved in two different ways: in German, the simplified versions followed the original source closely and cohesive devices were observed or made more explicit, while for French, all content information was extracted from the authentic source and texts were then rewritten using simplification techniques as described above, and by changing the text chronology of the original source to enhance text coherence. In both languages, the content of the texts was not simplified, nor were implicit references to extra-textual knowledge or background knowledge made more explicit. These documents were then re-recorded by native speakers in a mode which was as close to the original as possible, that is, which retained the speed and prosodic features of natural speech. By simplifying in the manner described, by recording at almost original speed, and by presenting the texts in "near-authentic mode" we produced "simplified" versions which retained much of the naturalness of the original. In particular the main pitfall of simplification, highly artificial speech, was avoided.

In the case of the German texts, the participants were aware that their texts had been manipulated; in the case of the French texts, this was not transparent. Details of text modification for the authentic-simplified pairs are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1a: Text Modifications for French Material

Text Type	T-units	Words per T-unit	Words per minute
Authentic	26.25	19.41	173.11
Simplified	31.50	15.96	169.11

Table 1b: Text Modifications for German Material

Text Type	T-units	Words per T-unit	Words per minute
Authentic	29.33	12.78	152.80
Simplified	37.66	9.96	146.40

Procedures

For listening passage and comprehension test administration purposes participants for each language were divided into two groups, French Groups A and B and German Groups A and B. The eight listening passages and their tests (see Appendix 1 for a sample comprehension test) were administered to both language groups over a period of four to eight weeks. In Stage 1 each group listened either to the authentic or to the slower version of a document, and were then given a comprehension test which asked from five to eight questions about the content of the passage. In Stage 2 each group listened either to the authentic or to the linguistically simplified version of a document and again took a simple comprehension test about the content of the passage. Exposure to different input types alternated from test to test. All participants thus listened to the same number of authentic, slow and simplified documents (see Figure 1). Informal interviews and feedback sessions also took place during and after the experiment.

Figure 1: Test Design

Text	Input type	Group A*	Group B*
Stage 1: Authentic/Slow			
1	auth - slow	authentic	slow
2	auth - slow	slow	authentic
3	auth - slow	authentic	slow
4	auth - slow	slow	authentic
Stage 2: Authentic/Simplified			
5	auth - simpl	authentic	simplified
6	auth - simpl	simplified	authentic
7	auth - simpl	authentic	simplified
8	auth - simpl	simplified	authentic

*= identical for French and German

Administration of Comprehension Tests

Each comprehension test followed the same pattern of administration:

1. Prior to listening, participants received from about five to eight comprehension questions (also referred to as "comprehension test") about the content of the document they were about to hear (see Appendix 1 for a sample test). They were asked to read the questions carefully before listening to the document.

2. The participants listened to the document for the first time. They were not told whether they were listening to the authentic or a modified version of the document. They were asked to take notes while listening. After a short break the document was presented for the second time, and participants added to or completed their notes.

3. The participants then answered the comprehension questions in English and were then asked to indicate how difficult they had found the passage and how much they thought they had understood, using percentages (i.e., 50% = "I have understood about half of the content"). This is referred to below as the *perceived comprehension score*.

4. The participants then completed a questionnaire (see Appendix 2) in which they were asked to indicate their interest in the topic of the passage. They were asked to record their view regarding the appeal of the content and the relevance of the passage for language learning and skills training purposes on a 7-point Likert scale. The items in the questionnaire matched the research questions identified above. Students were told explicitly to complete the questionnaire as spontaneously as possible.

5. We then scored the comprehension tests, using percentages to measure the participants' performance (50% = the participant answered half of the comprehension questions correctly). This is referred to below as the *real comprehension score*.

Statistical Analysis

The perceived and real comprehension tests scores for both groups were then subjected to two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to establish whether and to what extent significant differences existed between (1) the two input variables "authentic speed" and "slow speed" and (2) the two input variables "authentic" and "linguistically simplified." Text differences were taken into account in the analysis of input differences. The French and German groups' Likert scale responses to the questionnaire items were also examined using two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to examine their attitudes towards the listening material and to investigate whether the two groups shared similar reactions.

Results

The first part of this section concentrates on the analysis of the questionnaire results and comprehension test performance data (actual performance and perceived performance). For clearer presentation of results, the variables examined are grouped together as follows:

1. Perceived and real comprehension scores;
2. Speed and perceived difficulty of the listening text;
3. Language learning variables: useful for language learning, useful for listening comprehension training;
4. Content appeal variables: interest, information value, helpful for learning about topic, enjoyment.

The data for the input pair "authentic/linguistically simplified" showed a number of statistically significant differences between the two input types, and, importantly, with similar trends apparent for both languages. The "authentic speed/slower speed" input pair, on the other hand, led to very few statistically significant results. Not surprisingly, participants in both languages clearly perceived the speed-modified input as slower and as less difficult and also assumed that they had performed better on the slower input. This was confirmed by their actual performance. But they did not differentiate at a statistically significant level between these two input types as far as "usefulness for language learning" or "content appeal" was concerned. The texts presented at slower speed seemed linguistically easier to the participants and it seemed easier to achieve better performance scores on them, but this did not make them more "attractive" to the participants than the technically more difficult authentic texts.

As the findings for the slow/authentic pair were statistically significant only in the categories "difficulty" and "speed," a summarized presentation of data for this input pair shall suffice here (Table 2).

Table 2: Summary of ANOVA Results for Input Variables "Authentic" and "Slow"

	French auth/slow	German auth/slow
Perceived perform.	slow higher*	slow higher*
Real performance	slow higher*	slow higher*
Speed	auth higher*	auth higher*
Text difficulty	slow easier*	slow easier*
Language learning	NS	NS
List.comp. training	NS	NS
Interest	NS	NS
Information value	NS	NS
Helpful for topic	NS	NS
Enjoyment	NS	NS

* significant at $p < 0.05$; NS= not significant

The remainder of this section will focus on the data for the input pair "authentic/simplified." The issue to address first was whether and to what extent the linguistic modifications increased the comprehensibility of the texts, both in terms of participants' perception and in terms of actual performance. To establish this, participants were asked to indicate how much they thought they had understood, and then answered the comprehension questions which accompanied each text. We then evaluated this comprehension test, using percentage points, comparing their real scores with their perceived scores. The students' mean perceived comprehension score (as indicated by themselves) and their real comprehension score (as measured by us) are shown in Table 3 below.

Table 3: Comparison of Comprehension Test Scores for Authentic and Linguistically Simplified Input (mean _ *sd*)

	French		German	
	Perceived	Real	Perceived	Real
Authentic	47.94 _ 12.12	29.91 _ 9.61	55.91 _ 20.21	53.16 _ 19.17
Linguistically simplified	59.47 _ 10.39	39.74 _ 12.10	72.15 _ 13.81	77.09 _ 14.15
Significance	•	•	•	•

• significant at $p < 0.05$

Two-way analysis of variance for each language shows that there were significant differences between the two input types, with "linguistically simplified" having a higher mean for both perceived and real comprehension score in both languages after controlling for variation among the texts. For German, differences were significant for both the perceived comprehension score (F[1, 105]=22.93; $p < 0.01$) and the real comprehension score (F[1, 83] = 43.82; $p < 0.01$). For French, the trend was similar (perceived comprehension score: F[1, 37] = 11.06; $p < 0.01$; real comprehension score: (F[1, 37] = 9.70; $p < 0.01$). The considerable difference in real comprehension scores between the French and German groups was due to the fact that the German group was more advanced than the French group. These differences notwithstanding, the perceived comprehension scores show that participants felt they had done better on the tests for simplified input than on the tests for authentic input. Their real comprehension scores confirm this, and show that the linguistic modifications carried out on the original sources made the texts easier to understand. As students were able to provide fuller answers to comprehension questions on the simplified texts, we can conclude that the simplifications increased the accessibility of the content of the passage.

While the setup of the study does not allow conclusions regarding the respective impact of grammatical and lexical modifications—an important issue which clearly needs to be explored—some conclusions can be drawn regarding the relative impact of linguistic modifications. As passages were recorded at nearly original speed, our findings suggest that linguistic modifications can increase the accessibility of content even if the delivery speed remains almost the same as in authentic speech.

Participants were then asked to indicate how fast (1 = slow, 7 = fast) and difficult (1 = not difficult, 7 = difficult) they found the passages. For German, differences were significant for speed (F[1, 105] =25.21; $p < 0.01$) and difficulty (F[1, 105] = 41.00; $p < 0.01$). For French, the trend was similar (speed: F[1, 37] = 24.93; $p < 0.01$; difficulty: F[1, 37] = 17.70; $p < 0.01$) although the mean values for both input types were higher than for German. This mirrors the performance data.

Table 4: Perception of Speed and Text Difficulty (mean _ *sd*)

	French		German	
	Speed	Text difficulty	Speed	Text difficulty
Authentic	6.09 _ 0.85	5.65 _ 0.93	5.35 _ 1.32	4.94 _ 1.41
Linguistically simplified	4.84 _ 1.01	4.42 _ 1.02	4.07 _ 1.26	3.29 _ 1.32
Significance	*	*	*	*

* significant at $p < 0.05$

As Table 4 shows, the simplified passages were perceived as significantly slower than the authentic passages, yet the data in Tables 1a and 1b show that the actual differences, such as the words per minute count, were almost negligible. This discrepancy between actual and perceived speed might, for the German group, be due to the fact that participants recognized the speakers as their own teachers. This, however, was not the case for the French group where speakers unknown to the participants were used. We can tentatively conclude that the exposure to and processing of simpler speech and, in the case of the German students, in combination with speaker familiarity, had a significant impact on participants' perception of the speed at which the passages were presented.

Participants in both language groups considered the simplified input to be more easily understandable than the authentic input, and they also achieved higher test scores using this type of input. This leads to the question of whether they would differentiate in a similarly consistent fashion regarding the "language learning" and "content appeal" of the two input types. Thus, the participants were asked to indicate on seven-point scales how useful they found the passages for language [illegible]ing and for the training of listening comprehension skills (1 = not useful, 7 = useful), and the results are shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Useful for Language Learning and for Listening Comprehension Training (mean _ *sd*)

	French Language learning	Listening comprehension	German Language learning	Listening comprehension
Authentic	4.87 _ 1.06	5.39 _ 0.89	4.91 _ 1.51	4.96 _ 1.52
Linguistically simplified	5.53 _ 0.84	5.58 _ 0.96	5.23_ 1.26	5.36 _ 1.16
Significance	*	NS	NS	NS

*significant at $p < 0.05$; NS = not significant

Two-way analysis of variance for each language shows that for the German group there were no significant differences between the two input types after controlling for differences among texts (German: "language learning": $F[1, 105] = 1.59$; $p > 0.05$; "listening comprehension": $F[1, 102] = 2.63$; $p > 0.05$). In French, there was also no significant difference between the two input types for perception of the usefulness for training listening comprehension, (- $F[1; 37] = 0.41$; $p > 0.05$.). There was a significant difference in the students' perception of the usefulness of the input for language learning (- $F[1, 37] = 4.90$; $p < 0.05$), but the difference was only narrowly significant. While simplified input obtained consistently higher means for "language learning" value than authentic input, these differences reached statistical significance in only one instance. It can therefore not be concluded that learners automatically attribute higher "learning value" to a type of input that they find easier to understand. Scores show an above average rating across the matrix, that is, across both input types. This suggests that learners are appreciative of both types of input as generally useful for language learning purposes.

A different picture, however, emerges when we turn to the content dimension. As Sharwood Smith (1986) and Færch & Kasper (1986) emphasize, learners process for meaning or comprehension and for learning or acquisition. But little is known about the relationship between the two types of processing, whether these occur simultaneously or not, or what mental processes are involved. Sharwood Smith and others, for instance, suggest that learners tend to focus on meaning even in contexts where they are explicitly asked to concentrate on form (Sharwood Smith, 1986, p. 243, p. 254; Van Patten, 1990; also Derwing, 1996), but further empirical data is required to gain a clearer picture. While this limited study was not designed to shed light on the cognitive processes involved in input processing, it can nonetheless provide some insight into learner preferences. Participants were asked to rate how interesting (1 = boring, 7 = interesting), and enjoyable (1 = not enjoyable, 7 = enjoyable) they found a passage. In addition they were asked to evaluate the information value of the passage (1 = not informative, 7 = informative) and whether it was helpful to understand the topic (1 = not helpful, 7 = helpful). As shown in Tables 6a and 6b, simplified input scored significantly higher on these items than authentic input.

Table 6a: Content Appeal: Interest and Enjoyment (mean _ *sd*)

	French		German	
	Interest	Enjoyment	Interest	Enjoyment
Authentic	4.48 _ 1.08	4.22 _ 1.09	4.60 _ 1.35	4.11 _ 1.51
Linguistically simplified	5.47 _ 1.07	5.11 _ 1.05	5.71 _ 0.85	4.88 _ 1.49
Significance level	•	•	•	•

Table 6b: Content Appeal: Information Value and Helpful for Learning about Topic (mean _ *sd*)

	French		German	
	Infor. value	Helpful	Infor. value	Helpful
Authentic	4.70 _ 0.93	4.61 _ 0.94	4.96 _ 1.40	4.73 _ 1.40
Linguistically simplified	5.58 _ 1.02	5.26 _ 1.05	5.77 _ 0.87	5.56 _ 1.25
Significance	•	•	•	•

• significant at $p < 0.05$

Two way analysis of variance of the data for each language shows that there were significant differences between the two input types, after controlling for differences among texts, with simplified input consistently achieving the higher mean for all four content-related items (Tables 6a and 6b). For the German group, differences were significant for interest (F[1, 104]=28.86; $p < 0.01$), information value (F[1, 104] = 15.83; $p < 0.01$), "helpful for learning about the topic" (F(1,100) = 9.84; $p < 0.01$) and for enjoyment (F[1, 104] = 8.20; $p < 0.01$). The French group mirrored the trend. Significant differences were observed for interest (F[1, 37] = 8.83; $p < 0.01$), enjoyment (F[1, 37] = 7.13; $p < 0.05$), "helpful for learning about the topic" (F[1, 37] = 4.49; $p < 0.05$) and for information value (F[1, 37] = 8.17; $p < 0.01$).

The fact that the participants differentiated more markedly between authentic and simplified input when asked to comment on content than when asked about language and skills training lends limited support to the hypothesis that learners tend to process input more explicitly for meaning and content and only implicitly for acquisition. Learners, so it seems, want to know first and foremost what a passage is about, and this makes them more discriminating in their judgement of the "content value" than in their judgement of the language learning or skills learning value of the two types of input.

This summary of our results shows consistency across the two languages for the input pair "authentic" and "linguistically simplified." Despite the differences in simplification procedures and learner levels, and despite the fact that the real comprehension scores for French were used for the participants' course assessment, while this was not the case for German, the responses obtained from the two groups of participants were very similar. This enables us to make some observations about language learner responses to and perception of input, and to draw some conclusions for teaching practice.

Discussion

In this limited pilot study the degree of real or perceived success on a listening comprehension test did not have a significant influence on participant responses to the different input types. Although the participants performed significantly better on the simplified and slower versions of the texts and were obviously aware of this difference in their performance, neither the French group (whose performance was part of their assessment) nor the German group (whose performance was not assessed) opted for the input types on which they performed best.

The participants also perceived little difference between authentic and modified types of listening input and their respective values for language learning. Most participants did not differentiate significantly between the respective contributions of authentic, slow or simplified input to their language learning efforts or to their listening comprehension training. Instead they were favorably disposed towards *all* input. This, in our view, is largely due to the fact that FL learners, unlike SL learners, have limited access to target language input. Even within the FL classroom, aural input is only available on a limited basis. Thus, the *quantity* of their exposure to appropriate texts may be more important in this context than whether the input is authentic or not.

Statistically significant differences between authentic and modified input occurred only for those questionnaire items which related to the "appeal" and degree of thematic interest of the passage in question, in other words for items which were content-oriented, rather than language learning-oriented, and significant differences occurred only for the authentic-simplified input pair, with linguistically modified sources receiving higher scores than authentic sources. For content-related items, students differentiated significantly between linguistically simplified and authentic passages, but *not* between slow and authentic input. Participants, so it seems, had a strong preference for the "authentic-sounding" versions, where lexical and syntactic comprehension barriers which might have blocked access to the content of the passage had been removed without eliminating the authentic "feel" of the passage (e.g., speed, prosody, and thematic complexity).

This suggests that even when FL learners process input primarily for meaning they do not simply favor the passage which presents the fewest comprehension hurdles. If this were the case, participants would *also* have indicated a marked preference for the slower passages that were mechanically modified and, as performance data show, provided obviously easier input than the authentic input. Yet this did not happen. Participants favored linguistically simplified input, but not slow input over authentic input, despite the fact that speed modification, at least in this study, increased the comprehensibility of a passage markedly.

This paradox suggests that FL learners respond sensitively to input modifications. The ease with which a text can be understood (referred to here as "content accessibility") may not automatically lead to an overall favorable response to the text as a source of content. Instead, the findings of this study suggest, as far as content appreciation is concerned learners operate on a continuum with a maximum and a minimum threshold of accessibility or ease of understanding beyond or below which they, as adult learners, prefer not to be taken.

This conclusion was supported also in subsequent informal feedback sessions where participants reported "overload" symptoms in their discussion of listening comprehension in the authentic mode, but where they also labeled the slower versions "boring," "patronizing" and perhaps only useful for learners at a very early stage of their language studies. Authentic speed was recognized as a crucial comprehension barrier but this did not make slower versions more popular. Such comments suggest that *both* slow and authentic input can remind learners too obviously of the fact that they are not listening for real purposes, but rather for learning purposes. Authentic sources act as a reminder of the learners' limitations, partly because of the genuine difficulty of a text, and partly because FL learners tend to have unrealistic expectations about comprehension, "believing that in order to have understood something completely they need to decode each and every linguistic element in the input" (Færch & Kasper, 1986, p. 265). The slow input sources, on the other hand, are so obviously adjusted to the restricted competence of the FL learner that they come across as condescending—thus perhaps blocking the development of interest.

Pedagogical Implications

Findings from motivation research could be drawn on to provide some explanation for these responses. Experiments based on attribution theory in particular, which is concerned with the way individuals attribute events such as learning or performance success and failure to causes such as ability, effort, task difficulty or luck (Skehan, 1989; Heckhausen, 1989), could provide useful insight. Although limited, this pilot study raises some considerations for the development of FL listening exercises and future research.

The results here suggest that teachers should beware of using material that is too easy. Learners, so it seems, appreciate a challenge. But how much of a challenge? The often-made claim that authentic input, however difficult, is more interesting, motivating and appealing than modified materials, needs to be revisited through further research. "Authentic" input was well received by participants in this study, but did not score significantly better than slower versions and, notably, not as well as linguistically simplified versions. This result suggests that what may matter most to the learner is not whether a text is authentic but whether it is "accessible enough" *without* sounding non-genuine. These qualities, rather than merely the undiluted authenticity of a text or source, seem to promote learners' positive reception of the material. Even though the authentic sources were judged by us to be an adequate challenge for the respective learner levels, and even though the comprehension questions provided some implicit comprehension aid, the participants nevertheless preferred a more comfortable accessibility level. This enabled them to focus on the content of the message since they were not unduly distracted by linguistic challenges.

Unlike the authentic or slow versions, the authentic-sounding linguistically modified passages enabled participants to listen to a passage without being reminded of their limitations as language learners. This, so it seems, supported their interest in, or involvement with, the content of the passage, and has some implications for listening material design. If, indeed, the linguistically simplified texts described here provide an interest-enhancing source of classroom materials, teachers can choose to draw on this type of input to enhance their otherwise limited supply of thematically relevant texts without fear of adversely affecting their students' motivation.

But while the reinstatement of linguistically simplified input as a useful classroom resource offers one solution to the recurrent problem of finding the right material for the language classroom, it poses a considerable challenge as well. Participants in this study saw the linguistically modified input as "just right" and in a genuine classroom environment such input can result in higher levels of motivated behavior than the non-modified source. But this is not to say that language acquisition would necessarily follow. As has already been pointed out it is still very much open to debate how and to what extent a specific type of input facilitates, leads to or hinders the acquisition of linguistic structures and lexical items or of comprehension strategies. Van Patten, for instance, claims that "only when input is easily understood can learners attend to form as part of the intake process" (1990, p. 296), thus highlighting ease of access as a prerequisite for acquisition. Færch & Kasper, on the other hand, proposed that "if input is to function as intake to the learning of higher-level L2 materials, learners need to experience comprehension problems" (1986, p. 270).

Conclusion

In the absence of clear and unambiguous empirical data it is undoubtedly safer for the teacher to adopt a more eclectic approach, in line with Sharwood Smith, who puts forward the notion of a "rich communicative environment" (1986, p. 252) where the "total input is communicatively complex or 'diversified'" (ibid., p. 242) because diversified input seems "normal and conducive to acquisition" (ibid., p. 252). But how to achieve an optimum balance between input which learners find "just right" to engage with and input which challenges their comprehension sufficiently for language acquisition to occur can only be established when more empirical evidence becomes available.

Input research needs to examine more specifically the linguistic qualities of different input types. Why the level of accessibility realized in the linguistically simplified yet authentic-sounding passages in this study constituted the most favorably received level of accessibility requires further and more precise analysis in both quantitative and qualitative terms. We need to get a clearer picture of the factors, lexical or structural, which constitute text difficulty and of the critical thresholds at which input becomes either too easy or too difficult for learners to maintain their interest or so challenging that their interest disappears. This could, for instance, be measured in the ratio of known/comprehensible to unknown/incomprehensible data in the text. Matching these ratios against learner perceptions should provide valuable insight into the notion of text difficulty.

Finally and most importantly the relation between accessibility of input and learner perceptions must be mapped against the acquisition of language structures and lexical items. This, of course, remains the most important and the most elusive challenge empirical and theoretical input researchers have to address.

Notes

1. *Authentik* is a language learning magazine published bi-monthly by Authentik Language Learning Resources Ltd, a campus company associated with Trinity College Dublin. The magazine and accompanying cassette feature a wide range of authentic texts on current issues taken from newspapers, magazines and radio broadcasts, and are suitable for first year university students. Materials are graded according to level of difficulty, and for this study only texts rating at the highest level of difficulty were selected.

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(Received October 3, 1999; revised July 8, 2000)

Appendix 1: Sample Listening Comprehension Test

Name:

Date:

Procedure:

1. Read the following questions carefully before listening to the recording.
2. Listen to the recording for the first time, without stopping the tape, and take notes in the space provided (Notes). Continue over the page if you need to do so. You may choose to take notes in whichever language you prefer.
3. Listen to the recording a second time, without stopping the tape, and add to your notes in a differently coloured pen.
4. Write your answers in English.
5. Complete the attached questionnaire.

In this news item the reporter talks about student demonstrations in Germany.

Questions:

1. How many students are gathering in Bonn and what are they protesting against?
2. How do students describe the conditions under which they are studying? Give details.
3. What is planned in Göttingen?
4. What are students at the University of Kiel planning?
5. What is the situation in Flensburg? What are students doing/not doing here?
6. What is the situation in Mecklenburg-Vorpommern (Universities of Rostock, Greifswald,Wismar, Stralsund)?

Notes:

Appendix 2: Questionnaire

What did you think of this listening passage?

The purpose of this questionnaire is to assess the value of the listening passage used in class today. This is not a test, and there are therefore no correct or wrong answers. We are interested in your impressions and spontaneous reactions.

How to complete the questionnaire

Please mark ONE 'X' on each scale to indicate how you would rate the passage against the respective concept.

EXAMPLES:

If the word at either end of the passage very strongly describes your views, you would place your 'X' as shown below:

fascinating _X_/___/ ___/___/___/___/___/ dull
or
fascinating ___/___/___/___/___/___/_X_/ dull

If the word at either end of the passage somewhat describes your views, you would place your 'X' as shown below:

fascinating ___/_X_/___/___/___/___/___/ dull
fascinating ___/___/___/___/___/_X_/___/ dull

If the word at either end of the passage slightly describes your views, you would place your 'X' as shown below:

fascinating ___/___/_X_/___/___/___/___/ dull
fascinating ___/___/___/___/_X_/___/___/ dull

If your view is neutral, place your 'X' in the middle.

Now over to you:

I found this passage:

interesting ___/___/___/___/___/___/___/ boring
not helpful for topic ___/___/___/___/___/___/___/ helpful for topic
not informative ___/___/___/___/___/___/___/ informative
enjoyable___/___/___/___/___/___/___/ not enjoyable
useful for lang learning ___/___/___/___/___/___/___/ not useful for lang learning
difficult___/___/___/___/___/___/___/ not difficult
useful for training listening comp ___/___/___/___/___/___/___/ not useful for training listening comp
slow___/___/___/___/___/___/___/ fast
Would you be interested in listening to the second half of the passage or not?
interested ___/___/___/___/___/___/___/ not interested

Concepts of EFL Reading among Taiwanese College Students of Low Reading Proficiency

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This study is an empirical and descriptive exploration of EFL reading concepts held by Taiwanese college students of low reading proficiency. Fifty subjects were selected according to their reading comprehension scores on the Secondary Level English Proficiency Test and were scheduled for interviews. Forty-five subjects took part in the interviews and their responses were tape-recorded, transcribed, and analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. The results indicate that there are certain concepts about EFL reading which are shared by the subjects. Generally they showed little awareness of independent, internally generated repair strategies, tended to process EFL reading at word level in a rather analytical fashion, and mainly viewed EFL reading as a language learning exercise. Several strategies reflecting this restricted view of reading are identified. The paper concludes with a discussion of pedagogical implications.

本論では、英語読解を得意としない台湾人大学生が、英語読解についてどのような考えを持っているかを、実証的かつ記述的に行った研究を報告する。SLEP Testの読解テスト結果に基づいて50名の被験者を選び、このうち45名に対して個別インタビューを行った。インタビュー内容は録音し、後に記述したデータを、質的・量的の両面から分析した。この結果、被験者が英語読解について、特徴的な考え方を持っていることが明らかになった。一般的には、被験者は独立し内在化された補正・修正ストラテジーについての意識が薄く、読解を、単語レベルの分析的な作業、教室における言語学習練習と考えている。このように、読解を限定的に考える様子が見て取れるストラテジーが、いくつか認められた。最後に、この結果を踏まえて、読解教育への示唆について述べる。

Teaching students to read English is a major goal of high school English education in many Asian countries, such as Taiwan, Japan and Korea, where students have to take written English tests for college entrance examinations. Some students are successful in learning to read English yet others remain at a low proficiency level throughout

JALT Journal, Vol. 22, No. 2, November, 2000

their school years. However, poor readers are found not only among EFL learners but also among students reading in their native language (L1). Many adult readers in the United States, for example, have been diagnosed as failing to develop fifth grade level reading skills (Micklos, 1990). These students, often termed "low literate readers"(Gambrell & Heathington, 1981), have inspired extensive research investigating the reasons for their unsuccessful learning.

One research focus deals with students' concepts about the nature and function of reading. Researchers in metacognition (Baker & Brown, 1984; Jacobs & Paris, 1987) have demonstrated that learners' knowledge about what constitutes learning coordinates and directs their thinking and behavior. Thus, if readers are aware of what is involved in the reading process and what is necessary to read effectively, then it is possible for them to take steps to meet the demands of a reading situation. On the other hand, if readers are not aware of, or have misconceptions about, the complexity of a reading task, then they cannot take appropriate action. Studies of poor readers which reveal their metacognitive awareness of the reading process and their use of reading strategies have shed light on some of the reasons for their unsuccessful learning.

L1 Studies of Poor Readers

Studies of L1 readers have identified several misconceptions about reading which characterize poor readers. They often perceive reading as a decoding process rather than as meaning construction (Fagan, 1988; Gambrell & Heathington, 1981; Malicky & Norman, 1989; Poissant, 1994). They also look to external sources such as teachers to resolve their comprehension failure, and are not aware of independent internally generated strategies (Fagan, 1988; Gambrell & Heathington, 1981). In addition, they often consider reading mainly as memorizing rather than as understanding meaning (Johnston, 1985).

Another line of L1 research investigating the relationship between students' concepts about reading and their reading achievements has provided further insights into the concepts held by poor readers. Osburn and Maddux (1983) reported that students with vague, meaningless concepts about reading often exhibited lower reading proficiency than those who gave meaningful definitions of reading. Furthermore, poor readers often described reading as the decoding of individual words instead of a process involving thinking and understanding. Similar findings have been reached by other researchers as well (Foley, 1984; Lesesne, 1991; O'Sullivan, 1992).

Recently L1 researchers seem to have shifted their attention from the characteristics of good and poor readers to the connections between students' concepts and different instructional settings (Burns-Paterson, 1991; Freppon, 1995; Reutzel & Sabey, 1996). However, the results of these studies have often been interpreted in light of previous findings. Furthermore, based on what has been discovered about good and poor readers' reading concepts, L1 reading research has been conducted to examine the effects of metacognitive training on reading comprehension. Although some studies have not found any facilitating effect for training (Duffy, Roehler, Meloth, Vavrus, Book, Putnam, & Wesselman, 1986; Jacobs & Paris, 1987) other studies have found it effective. These studies have illustrated that in classroom settings, poor readers who enhance their awareness of the nature of reading will ultimately become better readers than those who do not (Kinnunen & Vauras, 1995; Lysynchuk, Pressley, & Vye, 1990; Nist & Mealey, 1991; for reviews of research on metacognitve training in L1 reading, see Rosenshine, Meister & Chapman, 1996). Thus, the first step in enhancing inefficient readers' awareness is to discover what they believe about the reading process.

Reading Concepts in Second/Foreign Language Learners

Similarly, English as a second/foreign language (ESL/EFL) reading research has focused attention on metacognitive strategy training to improve students' reading comprehension (Casanave, 1988; Mulling, 1994; Swaffar, Arens, & Byrnes, 1991). However, the requisite research for such instruction is scarce since little research has been conducted regarding poor readers' concepts about ESL/EFL reading. Two studies have suggested that decoding-oriented concepts correlated with lower performances in reading English in L2 (Carrell, 1989; Devine, 1984). However, these two studies were limited to readers' conceptualization of strategy use, and did not investigate their awareness of other aspects of the reading process, such as the students' notions of the purpose and function of reading, which often provide enlightening insights into their reading behavior, including the use of strategies.

While a vast body of research in L1 reading has found that poor readers have more misconceptions about important characteristics of reading than good readers do, we know very little about metacognitive factors in EFL reading. Without the requisite research, we only have the assumption that instruction in metacognitive training would be beneficial in that case as well.

Research Focus

The present study was undertaken to empirically explore concepts about English reading held by low reading proficiency Taiwanese EFL readers, aiming to add critical information to our limited knowledge base about EFL readers. Only with a better understanding of what poor EFL readers think about reading can a teacher be adequately prepared to meet their needs.

Method

Subjects

All freshmen (N = 805) in Chung Shan Medical & Dental College, Taichung, Taiwan, were administered the Secondary Level English Proficiency Test (SLEP, a standardized test published by the Educational Testing Service) as an English placement test. Fifty students were then selected on the basis of their reading comprehension scores. These were the bottom-ranked students (29% and below according to the percentile ranks for SLEP scores) and therefore represented the low reading proficiency group. The 50 subjects were scheduled for individual interviews, and eventually 45 took part in the interviews.

Interview Procedures

Each subject was individually interviewed in her/his native language, Mandarin Chinese, by one of the researchers using eight questions adapted from the Burke Reading Interview (cited in Osburn & Maddux, 1983). The general question "What is reading?" was positioned last to "allow the students to warm up to the subject of reading and thus minimize the likelihood of an 'I don't know' response." (Canney & Winograd, 1979, p. 24). The interviews were tape-recorded and were transcribed for analysis.

Data Analysis

The subjects' responses were analyzed by the technique used in Reutzel and Sabey (1996), a systematic and interpretive way to analyze verbal responses to interview questions both qualitatively and quantitatively. The data was analyzed through processes of construction and enumeration (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Construction in the present study refers to the categorization of verbal responses into interpretive categories. For instance, the following two verbal responses "I often ask my teacher for help when I encounter reading difficulties" and "I usually turn to my classmates for help to solve reading problems " can be grouped into the same category labeled "asking someone."

The categorization was conducted using both open coding and axial coding (Stauss & Corbin, 1990). Open coding is a process whereby the answers to each question in the interview from, for example, the first five students are categorized. As the data analysis progresses, the responses to the same question from the rest of the subjects are grouped into the established categories, or, if necessary, are used to create new categories. The open coding data can be further combined through an axial coding process. In axial coding, related categories are grouped under a more inclusive higher order concept. For example, when analyzing the subjects' responses to a question about what they usually focus on in order to read effectively, a researcher may identify some verbal events categorized as "words," some categorized as "phrases," and some defined as "sentences. The researcher can group these three open categories into a more inclusive category and name it "language unit." This more general category suggests that the subjects are focusing on the language features rather than on the message conveyed by the text. In this way, axial coding results in a reduction of multiple open coding categories to more inclusive axial coding categories, a process which enables the researcher not only to reduce the number of units she/he is working with, but also to discover relationships among the categories.

Enumeration is a process whereby each verbal event within each category is counted. It results in the construction of frequency histograms for responses to each of the interview questions. Here the term "verbal event" refers to a unit consisting of words, phrases or sentences containing a certain significant property shared by the other units in the same category. For example, the learner's comment, "When I confront something that I don't understand in reading, I often ask my teacher. She is very knowledgeable and always knows the answer." is considered one verbal event. "I usually turn to my classmates for help in solving reading problems." is another verbal event. Both of these share a common characteristic, asking someone for help. Hence, by the process of enumeration, the category "asking someone" has a count of two verbal events.

In the present study, the data was categorized and the percentile frequency of events within each category was computed by the same researcher. Afterwards, the other researcher coded both the categories and percentile frequency counts. If the two researchers did not agree on the categorization of a verbal response, the verbal response was marked. There was a 91% agreement between the two researchers regarding the categorizations of the verbal responses, and all disagreements were resolved through discussion.

Results

The results of this study will be presented according to the questions asked in the interview.

Interview Question One: Do you think you are a good reader when reading English? Why or why not?

The students' responses to Question One indicate their perception of themselves as EFL readers. A full 96% answered "No" and only 4% answered "Yes." Thus the majority of the students did not consider themselves good readers.

The responses to the second part of the question, why students thought they were poor readers, are illustrated in Figure 1.

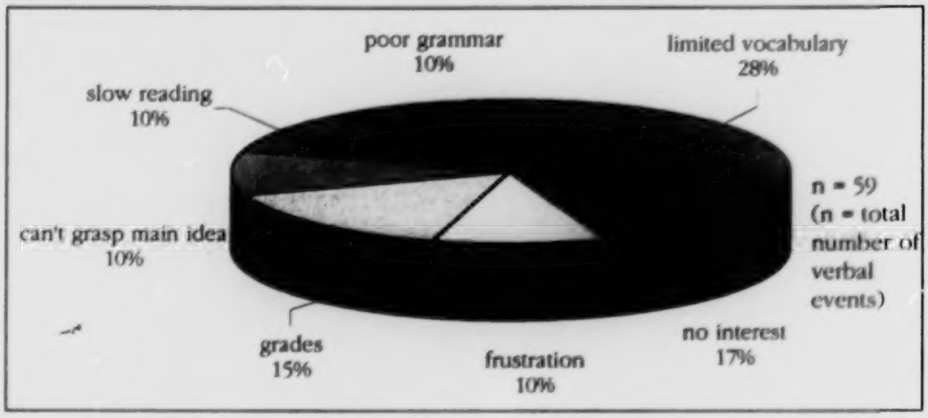


Figure 1: Reasons for Not Being A Good Reader[1]

These results indicate that the students gave *limited vocabulary* as their primary reason for their perception of themselves as poor EFL readers. Furthermore, examination of the data reveals that psychological factors, including two open coded categories *no interest* and *feeling of frustration*, were given as secondary reasons for their negative self-image. *English grades*, an external validation, was viewed as the third reason, as shown by the following comment: "My English reading ability is poor because my English grades at school are always very low."

Finally, the meaning-oriented notion of reading, *can't grasp main idea,* and the other two categories, *slow reading* and *poor grammar*, received equal attention from the subjects.

Interview Question Two: When you are reading in English and come to something you don't know, what do you do?

Responses to this question reveal how low proficiency EFL readers respond to unknown text elements. As shown in Figure 2, the subjects tended to rely heavily on a dictionary and other external sources to solve problems in reading English, since the open coded categories *look it up* and *ask someone* were favored. Furthermore, an interesting finding is observed regarding the category *skip*. The subjects viewed this as a "passive" strategy to escape from the difficulties rather than an effective means to deal with comprehension failure. The following statements exemplify passive strategy use:

> Student A: When I come to something that I don't understand, I usually feel very frustrated because that happens to me very often. So, I will skip it and read the next part.
>
> Researcher: Would you skip it even if it is a key point in the passage?
>
> Student A: Since I don't understand it, I cannot tell if it is important or not. Therefore, I usually just give up and read on.

Finally, the frequency counts of events in each category, except for those in *look it up* and *ask someone,* are very low, illustrating that most of the students know very little about repair strategies.

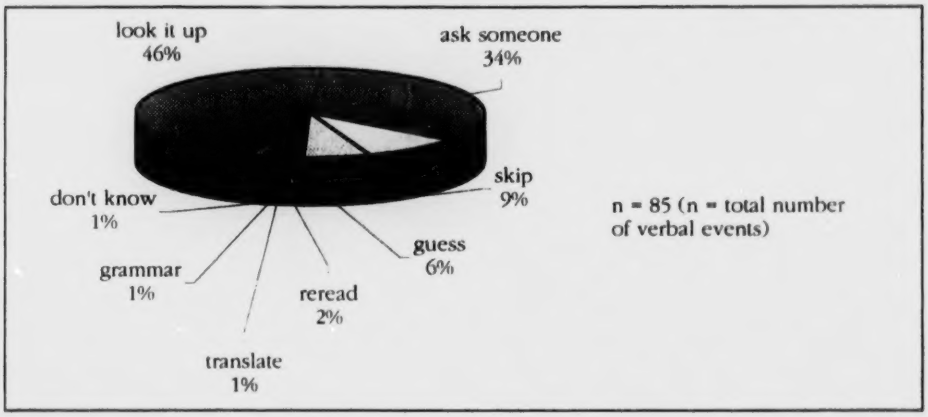
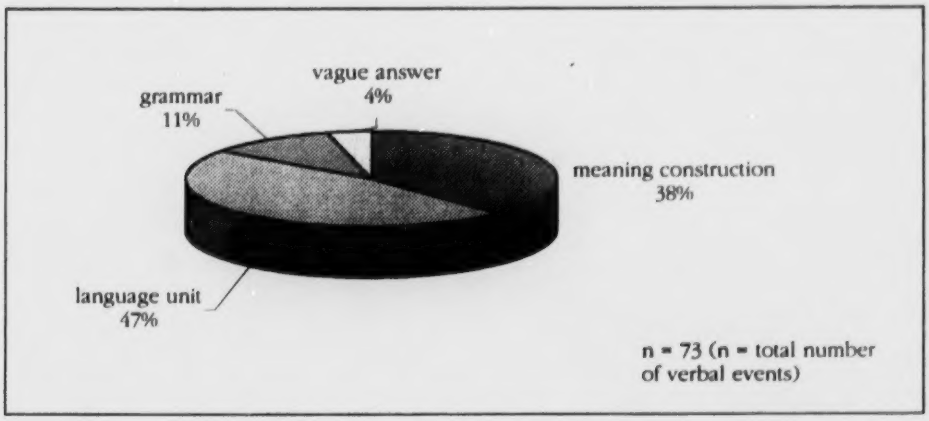


Figure 2: Self-Reported Strategies for Reading Difficulty

Interview Question Three: When you read in English, what do you usually focus on in order to read effectively?

The third question was designed to elicit students' viewpoints about effective strategies. Four categories were produced by axial coding (see Figure 3).



n = 73 (n = total number of verbal events)

Figure 3: Items to Focus on for Effective Reading

The highest proportion of the responses was allocated to the axial coding category *language unit*, which includes the open coding categories *words, phrases*, and *sentences*. This result indicates that the subjects were inclined to process reading analytically. When they read they paid a great deal of attention to individual words, phrases, and sentences. The following student comments from the interviews illustrate the responses within this category:

> I would like to figure out what each word means.
>
> You need to understand what each sentence says, then you will know what the entire article is about.
>
> I usually like to read each sentence phrase by phrase, and then I put them all together to figure out the sentence.

After *language unit*, *meaning construction* strategies were prevalent. These include the open categories *main ideas, topic sentences, title, pictures*, and *bold words*. Furthermore, the students also considered that analyzing sentence structure grammatically, such as identifying subjects and verbs, facilitated reading comprehension.

Interview Question Four: Who is a good English reader that you know? What makes her/him a good reader?

The responses to this question indicates the subjects' perceptions of the characteristics a good EFL reader possesses (see Figure 4). Interestingly, the results shows that although more variations are yielded, the attributes appear similar to those which the subjects felt that they lacked (Figure 1), thus leading to their perception of themselves as poor EFL readers.

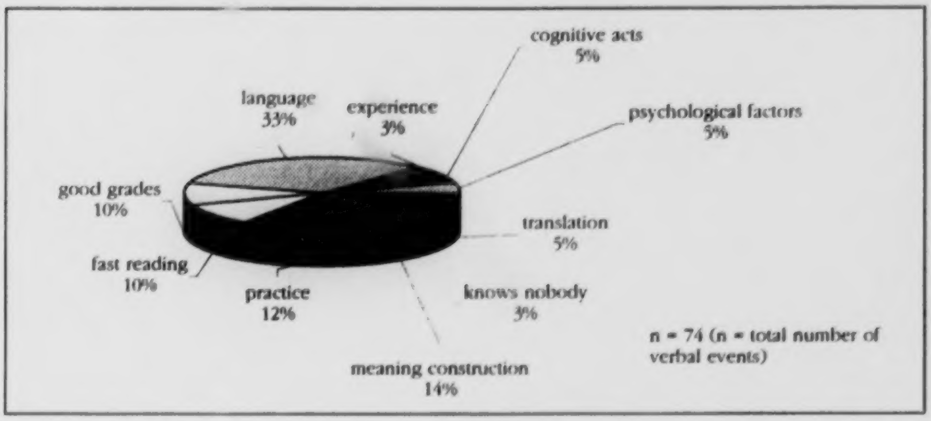


Figure 4: Characteristics of a Good English Reader

The first similarity is observed in the most dominant response, *language* makes good readers. The *language* category itself includes four open categories: *good grammar, speak fluently, write better,* and *large vocabulary,* the latter carrying the most weight. Among these the students mentioned *grammar* and *vocabulary* as two of the reasons why they did not consider themselves to be good EFL readers. Moreover, although much less prominent than *language,* four attributes were considered almost equally important for effective reading: *meaning construction, good grades, fast reading* and *practice.* Finally, *psychological factors,* including interest, were again mentioned here.

Three of the subjects answered that they did not know any good readers of English because, as one noted, "Birds of a feather flock together, so I don't know any good English reader."

Interview Question Five: Do you think that ___ ever comes to something she/he doesn't know when reading English? If yes, what do you think she/he does?

Like Question Four, Question Five investigates the students' perceptions of the skilled English reader they listed in Question Four by asking whether this person ever meets difficulties and, if so, what action would she/he take. Eighty seven percent of the students gave a "yes" answer, believing that their model reader of English would continue to encounter unknown text and would have to refine her/his reading skills.

The open coding responses to the second part of Question Five assessed the strategies that the poor readers thought the skilled readers would use (Figure 5). The subjects' estimates of what skilled readers would do were quite similar to their own very limited repair strategies for attacking difficulties in reading (Figure 2).

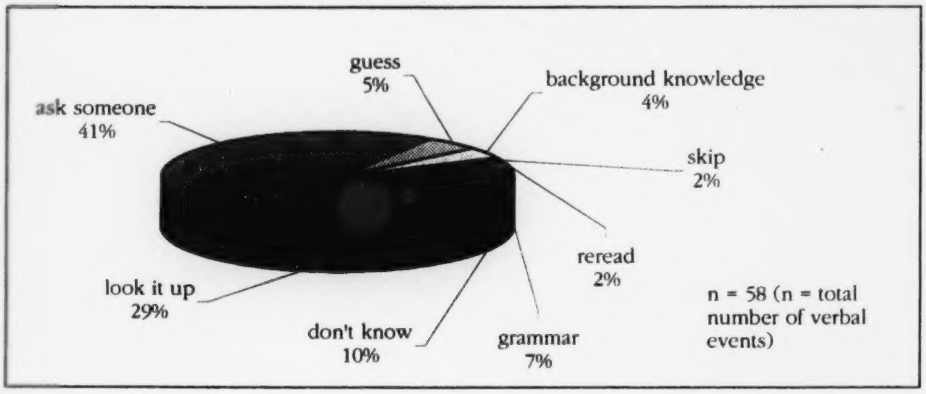


Figure 5: "Good Reader" Strategies for Reading Difficulties

Of the eight categories shown in Figure 5, seven are identical to those in Figure 2. Furthermore, *look it up* and *ask someone* continue to be the most prominent reading strategies. Finally, the percentile frequency counts of events in the categories other than *look it up, ask someone* and *don't know*, remain very low, ranging from 2% to 7%.

Interview Question Six: If you know someone who is having trouble reading in English, what would you suggest that she/he should do?

Axial coding categories of the interview responses (Figure 6) appear similar to those mentioned in Figure 4 showing the students' perceived image of good readers. It seems that students continue to draw upon the same set of strategies they believe good readers would use to help other readers in trouble. Again, a very strong preference for the category *language* is evident here. The category itself consists of four open categories, *large vocabulary, grammar, listening to English*, and *speaking English*. It is notable that subjects particularly attributed successful reading to *large vocabulary*.

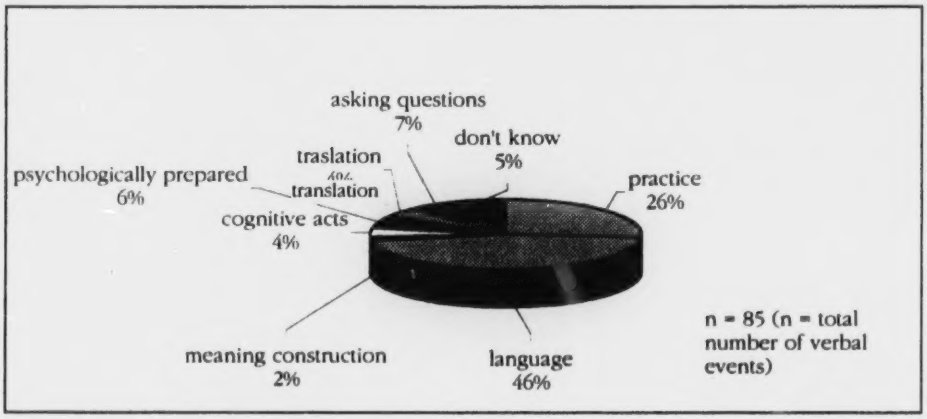


Figure 6: Recommended Strategies for Reading Difficulties

Interview Question Seven: How do you think a teacher would try to help someone who is having trouble with her/his English reading?

The students' responses to this question are of interest because they offer insights into what poor English readers expect from their teachers. Although some variations are observed, the axial coding categories shown in Figure 7 are similar to those presented in Figures 4 and 6. Thus, students would like their teachers to teach the strategies they believe good readers use for reading success. Throughout the three related interview questions, six categories were repeatedly mentioned: *meaning construction, language, practice, psychological factors, translation* and *cognitive acts*, the last indicated by responses such as "study hard" and "listen to the teacher attentively in class." Among them, *language* remains the most prominent category; here particular attention is given to *vocabulary* and *grammar*.

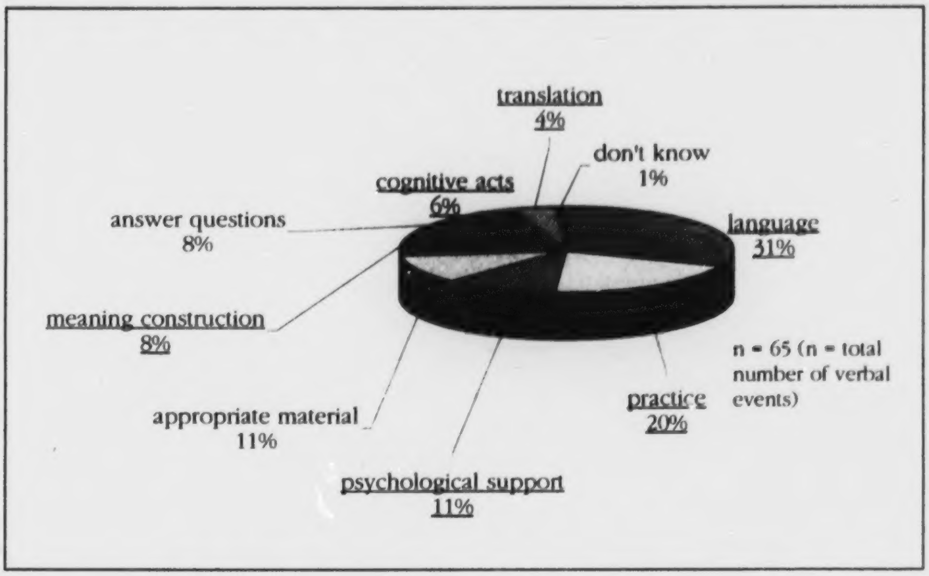


Figure 7: Teacher Assistance for Reading Difficulties

Interview Question Eight: What is English reading?

The final question investigates students' perceptions of EFL reading in general. The open categories resulting from the responses (Figure 8) indicate that the subjects were apt to define EFL reading in terms of the function of reading, the reading process, and their negative emotion toward reading. The functional viewpoint of English reading was the most favored concept, especially the viewpoint that EFL reading is identical to other language learning activities which students perform in order to advance their English proficiency. In addition, some of the subjects responded that reading had another function, that readers could gain new knowledge. After the functional view came the belief that EFL reading is a process of understanding overall meaning and/or individual words, and translating English into Chinese. Regarding their feelings toward EFL reading, none of the subjects associated reading with positive emotions but rather with negative and depressing feelings, as shown in the following comments:

> Reading is boring.
>
> I often feel frustrated.
>
> English reading is equal to failure for me.

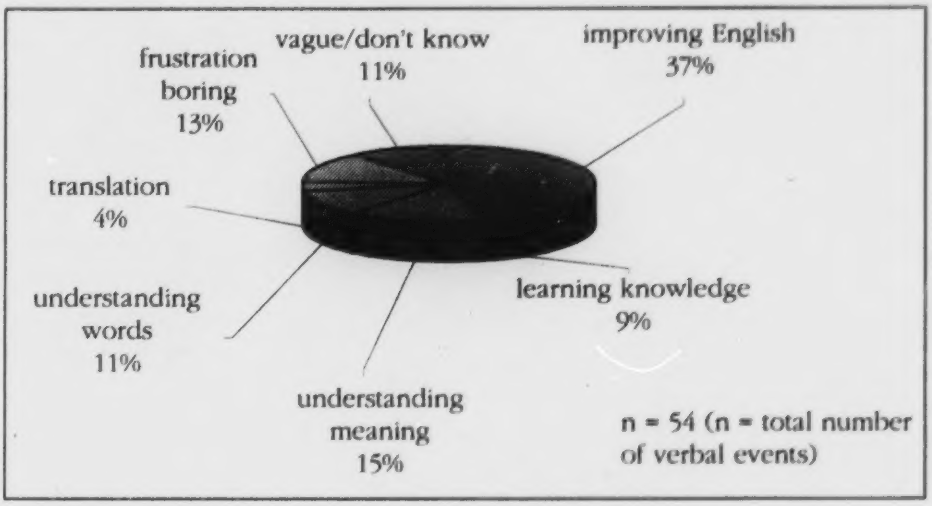


Figure 8: General Concepts of English Reading

Discussion

This limited study investigated concepts of EFL reading held by 45 Taiwanese college students of low reading proficiency and yielded findings concerning their views of effective reading strategies, the features which characterize repair reading, and their general concepts of EFL reading.

We begin by discussing the strategies that the subjects believe can solve their reading difficulties. Two dominant repair strategies were identified: *look it up* and *ask someone*, strategies often adopted by poor L1 readers as well (Gambrell & Heathington, 1981). The subjects in this study apparently believe that these two approaches have the greatest utility for dealing with English reading problems. However the subjects possessed very little awareness of other repair strategies, as indicated by the low frequency counts of verbal events within other categories. Even worse, they seemed to regard the other strategies as passive approaches to escape from a reading dilemma rather than as an effective way to solve comprehension failure.

Their heavy reliance on the strategy *look it up* indicates that they tended to consider reading difficulty mainly as confronting unknown words. This is to be expected if their stated characteristics of effective reading are considered. For this group *large vocabulary* leads to successful reading. Consequently, it is reasonable for them to believe that unsuccessful reading is often caused by unknown vocabulary. Looking up unknown vocabulary in a dictionary inevitably becomes one of their most powerful weapons to tackle problematic elements in reading.

As for what comprises effective reading, six characteristics were mentioned: *language, meaning-construction, practice, psychological supports, cognitive acts*, and *translation*. It seems that the subjects were aware of meaning-driven strategies. However, the percentile frequency counts in this category were overwhelmingly lower than those in the category *language*, suggesting that the subjects greatly preferred analytical approaches to holistic ones, a finding in line with studies of poor L1 readers. Within the category *language, large vocabulary* received the greatest emphasis. This concept could logically motivate the students' preference for *look it up* as a repair strategy, as discussed above. In addition to *large vocabulary, grammar* was also repeatedly mentioned throughout the interviews. This finding suggests that students often considered EFL reading as a process of decoding individual words and analyzing the grammatical relationship of each word to other components in the sentence.

The subjects' perception of the important role of vocabulary for good reading and their analytical approach toward reading are supported by the results of other studies endorsing interactive models of reading and threshold hypotheses. Researchers who advocate an interactive reading approach have argued that both top-down and bottom-up processing take place during fluent reading (Haynes, 1993; Smith, 1994). Reading is suggested to be a process composed of hierarchical components including word recognition, phonetic decoding, applying background knowledge, and making predictions. Poor L2 readers often do not have sufficient vocabulary knowledge, and thus direct most of their attention to word recognition or decoding tasks and consequently fail to direct adequate attention to global components (Coady, 1993; Huckin, 1986). In other words, tackling words is usually the main concern of poor readers when they read. Further support comes from studies on threshold hypotheses which suggest that effective transfer of reading skills from L1 to L2 is possible only after a certain threshold level of L2 proficiency has been reached. Research indicates that L2 learners who have not achieved a threshold vocabulary base can not employ the higher level processing skills and strategies which they have already acquired in their L1 (Brisbois, 1995; Bernhardt & Kamil, 1995). Thus sub-threshold readers often retreat to basic word decoding strategies when they read in the L2.

The presence of an analytical decoding approach is further supported by the EFL students' concept that English reading is mainly a language exercise to improve their English proficiency. This view might strengthen their belief that when reading in English, they should concentrate on linguistic features such as words and sentence structure rather than on the meaning conveyed. Such a restricted view of English reading may originate from the EFL learning environment in which they received their high school education. English is a foreign language in most Asian countries, including Taiwan and Japan, and high school students are seldom required to read it outside of the classroom. If English reading teachers over-emphasize linguistic components such as vocabulary and grammar, students may fail to acquire the communicative aspects involved in English reading.

The subjects' general viewpoint that English reading is language practice also sheds light on the finding that none of them associated English reading with pleasure but rather found it frustrating and boring. English reading might be burdensome and even painful if the results are low English grades. The negative impact of low English grades on the subjects' concepts of EFL reading was further indicated by their reference to *grades* as one of the major reasons for their view of themselves as poor EFL readers.

Finally, their consistent mention of two other properties of effective reading, *cognitive acts* and *translation*, are of great interest although the percentile counts were not high. Since the students often defined reading as language learning practice, it is reasonable for them to think that reading requires cognitive effort. Their preference for translation might also be related to their learning experiences in high school. In order to teach a group of students who speak the same language as the teacher, it is sometimes be effective for the teacher to conduct instruction in the shared mother tongue (L1). Whether L1 use facilitates EFL teaching is a controversial issue and is unrelated to this study. However, over-reliance on this strategy may be detrimental to the students' EFL reading ability.

In summary, the results of the present study reveal several concepts about EFL reading held by Taiwanese college students of low reading proficiency. Generally, they showed little awareness of independent, internally generated repair strategies, tended to process EFL reading at word level in a rather analytical fashion, and mainly viewed EFL reading as a language learning exercise.

Pedagogical Implications

The present study explores concepts of reading acquired by poor EFL readers, aiming to identify teaching methods which would help low level students become better readers. To achieve this goal, several teaching approaches will be proposed in this section.

First, the subjects' limited repertoire of repair strategies indicates that it would be helpful to deliver instruction to enhance their awareness of the reading process. L1 readers have been shown to benefit from explicit instruction on metacognitive training, so perhaps EFL readers would also benefit. Several approaches designed to promote readers' metacognitive awareness might be effective, such as reciprocal teaching (Palinscar & Brown, 1986), Question-Answer Relationships (QARs; see Raphael, 1982), and self-questioning (Sanacore, 1984). These approaches provide students with simple guides to help them monitor their reading comprehension and select appropriate repair strategies when comprehension fails.

Furthermore, instruction on holistic reading skills could also be beneficial since the subjects demonstrated an over-reliance on analytical strategies. Several top-down approaches such as previewing, predicting, and formulating potential questions (Williams, 1987) have been shown to help students direct their attention to the ideas presented in the text. In addition, instruction on vocabulary learning seems to be essential because the role of vocabulary in reading was greatly emphasized by the subjects, who might not have achieved a threshold vocabulary base, as discussed above. Such instruction should strengthen students' abilities to handle unfamiliar words, for example by teaching them to guess word meanings from contextual clues and to enhance their vocabulary learning strategies through various mnemonic devices (McCarthy, 1990; Hatch & Brown, 1995).

Finally, since the students mainly perceived English reading as a language exercise, instruction that not only emphasizes the linguistic aspects of a reading passage but also stresses understanding meaning is desirable. In addition to the various top-down approaches mentioned above, post-reading activities such as restructuring text (Alvermann, 1982), answering comprehension questions (Cornish, 1992), and making a summary (Brown & Day, 1980) would facilitate understanding of the meaning of the text. Moreover, although the necessity to read English for communicative purposes outside the classroom is rare in Taiwan and other Asian countries, opportunities to do so are plentiful since there are many English magazines, newspapers, signs/labels, and instruction manuals which accompany imported goods. Teachers can utilize these materials, especially those related to students' interests, for information acquisition purposes.

If teaching is to be effective, measures of students' concepts of reading are essential, as Lesesne (1991) has argued. Teachers who have identified students' inaccurate concepts and ineffective strategy use can plan instruction to meet the needs of the students. The present study has showed that, like L1 poor readers, Taiwanese college students of low reading proficiency held several misconceptions about English reading. However, distinct from L1 readers, some of these concepts seemed to be related to the EFL learning environment. Further research is in order to confirm the findings here and to explore other concepts held by poor EFL readers.

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Note

1. The *n* in Figure 1 and subsequent figures indicates the total number of verbal events. Although there were 45 subjects in the study, *n* is not always 45 because the subjects often answered the interview questions with more than one verbal response.

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(Received February 28, 2000; revised June 26, 2000)

Research Forum

Using Item Response Theory to Refine Placement Decisions

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This study explores the use of Item Response Theory (IRT) or Rasch analysis in making placement decisions. The general principles underlying population-dependent classical theory standard analyses (including standard error of measure) and population-independent IRT analyses are compared and are used to point out the shortcomings of the classical analyses in making accurate placement decisions. Two sets of hypothetical cut points based on raw scores and Rasch-generated student ability estimates were applied to a set of data ($N = 487$) and placement decisions using the two sets of cut points were compared. Twenty discrepancies were found, meaning that five percent of the students were potentially misplaced when using their raw scores. This information may be valuable for test administrators who want to make student placements based on test results with the least amount of measurement error.

本論文では、プレースメントの決定過程での項目応答理論の利用について考察を行った。観察データを対象とする古典的理論・分析（標準誤差等）と、観察データに拘束されない項目応答理論のそれぞれの一般的原則を比較・検討し、古典的理論・分析によるプレースメント決定の問題点を指摘した。487のデータについて、素点とRaschに基づく能力推定値をもとに、それぞれのプレースメント決定を比較した結果、素点を利用した場合は5％の確率でプレースメントの判断を誤る危険性が判明した。本研究は、測定誤差を最小にしてプレースメントを実施する者に有益な情報を提供する。

In a previous study we reported on the appropriateness of the use of the SLEP test (Educational Testing Service, 1991), a commercially produced proficiency test, for placement purposes in a one-year core EFL program at a Japanese university (Culligan & Gorsuch, 1999). Using classical item analysis, we found that many test items did not discriminate well between high and low scoring students. This resulted in a large standard error of measurement (SEM) and low test reliability (1999, p. 18). We noted that the high SEM estimate would create wide bands of score indeterminacy around program level cut points. For students with scores at or near these cut points it could be a matter of chance due to measurement error, not the students' abilities, that would put them in a higher or lower program level.

One of the positive points of classical item analysis, including item facility and index of discrimination (see Brown, 1996 for a comprehensive explanation), is that test items which discriminate effectively between high and low scoring students can be readily identified. If program administrators desire, they can score only those items, resulting in a "reduced data set" on which they could base their placement decisions. In our previous study, we demonstrated this technique with our test data and found that we could reduce the SEM and increase test reliability (Culligan & Gorsuch, 1999, p. 18). This technique will work reasonably well with programs that have administrators who are willing to use the procedure and have the equipment and trained personnel to do it.

There are two potential problems, however. First, we demonstrated that the test did not really "fit" the students who were taking it (1999, p. 17). Generally the test was too difficult, and students ended up just guessing on items. Thus many items did not offer any real information on the students' English proficiency. This "misfit" of the test to the students implies that we likely have inaccurate information about the true size of our SEM, throwing into doubt our placement decisions regardless of whether we use a full or reduced test.

Second, we pointed out previously that we live in an imperfect world. For political reasons or for reasons of timeliness and convenience, we cannot always take, or convince others to take, all the measures needed to ensure optimal student placement by scoring tests selectively. The concepts of selective test scoring and reliability, item discrimination, and SEM may be beyond the ability of concerned educators to convincingly explain to program administrators or office staff.

In this follow up study, we would like to demonstrate the use of Item Response Theory (IRT) with placement test data. We believe that an analysis offered by *Quest* 2.1, a widely available computer program in the IRT family, may give educators/administrators additional information that will enhance student placement decisions in situations where data from commercially produced proficiency tests cannot be selectively scored (Adams & Knoo, 1996).

Standard Error of Measurement Explained

The standard error of measurement (SEM) can be defined as the band of error around a test taker's score. Depending on the reliability of the test, this band of error could be several points or could be 10 or more points. If a student took the same test repeatedly, the student's scores on the tests would be normally distributed around his or her "true score." Assuming one standard deviation above or below the mean equals 34% of the distribution, the student's score would range from one SEM below the true score to one SEM above the true score about 68% of the time (34% + 34% = 68%). By extension, this means that if the student took the test 100 times, his or her score would differ from the true score by more than one SEM at least 32 times (100 - 68 = 32). On a test with poor reliability, one SEM could be 10 points. This means that a student who has a true score of 50 could go up to 60 points or down to 40 points more than 32 times out of 100 test administrations. If we look at it another way, out of 100 test takers, at least 32 students' scores are off probably by one or more SEMs. With such score variations, one can see how placement decisions based on test scores would have to take into account the SEM of the test. More importantly, by relying on a placement test with low reliability and a high SEM, we are virtually assured that some students' scores on the test will not reflect their true abilities. There is no way to determine, short of giving the test repeatedly, which students' scores are "off."

Norm Referenced SEM and What It May Not Tell You

A major problem with classical analyses of tests (of which SEM is one) is that the analyses are population-dependent. This means that test reliability, SEM, and standard deviation are a function of the number of students who took the test, as well as their scores and the distribution of their scores. In many test score distributions, the test will not be as reliable for scores that are at the middle of the distribution as for those scores at the extreme ends (high or low), "hence, the assumption of equal errors of measurement for all examinees is implausible" (Lord, cited in Hambleton, Swaminathan, & Rogers, 1991, p. 4). In other words, depending on where the students are in the score distribution of their group, they may not have the same SEM as students in other parts of the distribution. This means that wherever we create cut points for different levels in the program, we have varying levels of looseness around students' scores clustered around those cut points. Thus what SEM will *not* tell you is the actual band of error around scores at different points in the distribution.

Item Response Theory: An Alternative to Population-Dependent Analyses

Analyses generated by Item Response Theory (IRT) have been designed to overcome the limitations imposed by population-dependent test analyses. IRT is based on the probability of a student with a given ability correctly answering a test item with a given difficulty. According to IRT, a student with high ability should have a good probability of getting an easy item correct while a student with low ability should have a poor chance of getting a difficult item correct. By feeding students' responses on all items of a test into an IRT computer program and then analyzing them along the lines of IRT, we are given estimates based on probabilities for each student's ability and each test item's difficulty. These estimates can then be applied to any student, past or future, who took or may take the test. The advantages of this will become apparent below.

In Rasch analysis, a type of IRT, indices for both the abilities of the students and the difficulties of test items are generated based on probabilities calculated by an IRT program such as *Quest* 2.1 (Adams & Knoo, 1996), which was developed for use by the Australian Council for Educational Research (available through Assessment Systems Corporation, 2233 University Avenue, Suite 200, St. Paul, MN, 55144-1629, USA). In this analysis student abilities and item difficulties are both put on the same mathematical scale, which allows student abilities and item difficulties to be directly compared. The scale typically ranges from +3 for high student abilities and difficult items to -3 for low student abilities and easy items. A student with an ability estimate of "1" will have a 50% chance of responding correctly to an item with a difficulty estimate of "1." However, a student with an ability estimate of "2" will have a 73% chance of responding correctly to an item with a difficulty estimate of "1" while a student with an ability estimate of "3" will have an 88% chance. It is the difference between ability and difficulty estimates that determines the probability of answering correctly (see McNamara, 1996, p. 166).

The hypothetical model of student abilities and item difficulties that Rasch analysis creates based on the original data is thought to hold for all students who take the test in the future. Students who subsequently take the test and are estimated by the model to have an ability level of "1" will, like the original test takers, have a 50% chance of getting items on the test with a difficulty level of "1" correct. Because the model can be applied to subsequent test takers without regard to the number and scores of other test takers in the group, Rasch analysis is really a kind of population-independent test analysis.

Individual Measurement Error

Using a Rasch analysis of test data, we can obtain two important pieces of information that we cannot get from using classical population-dependent analysis of a test: (a) the student ability estimate and (b) the ability estimation error. The student ability estimate is created for each student by focusing on the individual student's responses on test items that tell the most about their ability. Recall that items that are too easy or too difficult for students really do not offer any information about their abilities. Students will answer easy items correctly without much thought and will usually guess at the answers to difficult items. IRT programs create a probabilistic estimate of a student's ability based on items at the point of difficulty where a particular student is not easily answering items correctly or struggling and guessing at answers. As McNamara (1996) wrote, "items have the greatest power to define the ability of the candidates in the range of ability which matches the difficulty of the item" (p. 167). The SEM, on the other hand, uses information from all students' responses to all items in the test. SEM is calculated using items that tell us very much, and very little, about students' abilities. Thus, the IRT student ability measure is a more accurate account of the true score of the student.

The ability estimation error differs from classical SEM theory in that an error estimate is created for each student ability estimate taking into account only the student's responses on the test items that are used to determine the student's ability estimate, that is, items that give us the most information about the student's ability. Both the student ability estimate and ability estimation error afforded by Rasch (IRT) analysis result in a more accurate estimate of individual students' abilities and the degree of error of this estimate. This is especially true for tests where many items are well above students' abilities and their random guesses contribute a great deal of error to the total scores.

Research Focus

In this study we are interested in whether we can refine our placement decisions by generating more information on individual students' abilities using Rasch (IRT) analysis. In particular, we want to improve placement decisions at the points where students' scores are clustered around hypothetical program-level cut points. We want to know if individual students' ability scores as provided by Rasch analysis indicate that students clustered around hypothetical program cut points have been placed into the wrong program levels.

Method

Participants

Only a brief description of the participants will be given here. For a full description, see Culligan and Gorsuch (1999). The participants in this study were 487 first year students at a private Japanese university near Tokyo. This number is well above the minimum of 100 students initially needed to complete Rasch analysis. They were predominantly Japanese, were eighteen years of age, and were liberal arts majors. Around 80% of the subjects were male.

Materials

A full description of the SLEP test form (Educational Testing Service, 1991) used in the study appears in Culligan and Gorsuch (1999). Briefly, the SLEP test is a 150-item measure of English proficiency normed on non-native English-speaking secondary school students in the U.S. It includes listening and reading subsections.

The computer program used in this study is *Quest* 2.1 for Macintosh computers (Adams & Knoo, 1996). It uses a single parameter Rasch measurement model and can provide analyses on both test items (items) and test takers (cases). Because *Quest* 2.1 is actually a FORTRAN program adapted for use with a Macintosh, it does not make use of the dialog boxes Macintosh and Windows users are familiar with. Instead, highly defined, non-intuitive commands must be typed in to create the analyses desired. In this study, we have given the precise commands we used to conduct our analysis. We hope this will help readers conduct their own Rasch analyses.

Procedure

In April 1996, SLEP test data for 487 students was read by an optical scanner and entered into a spreadsheet program. To prepare the data for analysis using *Quest* 2.1, the data was converted into tab-delimited text and pasted into a word processing program document. In order for the program to accurately "read" the data, the spaces created by the tabs were then eliminated using a search/replace function in the word processing program. This created a data set that looked like the data in Table 1.

Table 1: Sample Data Set

96122011100010101000 . . .
96130100011101010100 . . .

In the full data set, the 1's and 0's go off to the right and each line of data goes down to line 487. Note that there are no spaces between the characters. The first six numbers were student ID numbers (the numbers used here have been fabricated) and the following 150 "1" and "0" characters on each line indicates the students' correct and incorrect responses to each item. The data set was given the name slep.dat and was placed directly into the *Quest* 2.1 folder in the computer. The following batch commands were typed into a word processing program and the program was saved as slep.ctl and placed in the *Quest* 2.1 folder. We have given the purpose of each command in italics (see Table 2).

Table 2: Batch Commands in slep.ctl

Command	Purpose of Command
Title SLEP Pretest	*Gives a running header for the program output.*
data_file slep.dat	*Tells the program which Data Set to use.*
format name 1-6 items 7-157	*Tells the program which characters in the Data Set should be analyzed.*
estimate	*Tells the program to analyze the data.*
show>>out1.txt	*Gives test reliability, summary of fit indices, and an item/case map.*
show cases ! order=estimate >> out3.txt	*Requests the program to show the student ability and student ability error estimates for all cases (students), rank student ability estimates in descending order, and to put the information into a document called out3.txt, which you can open after quitting Quest 2.1.*
quit	*Instructs the program to quit.*

Note. The commands on the left would ordinarily appear single-spaced. Blank lines have been added in this table to correspond to the descriptions of the purposes of the commands.

To run the analysis, we launched the *Quest* 2.1 program and typed in: submit slep.ctl. The program completed the analysis and put the results into the out3.txt document we specified.

Data Analyses

In order to generate hypothetical student placement cut points, descriptive statistics for students' raw scores were calculated using *Microsoft Excel* 5.0 (1985-1993). The raw scores are what most program administrators would use to calculate the mean, standard deviation, and SEM of the data in non-IRT analyses. The raw scores were rounded to the nearest whole number. We used a raw score of 70 as the mean, 82 as the upper cut point, and 57 as the lower cut point. Assuming we wanted to place students into three groups (advanced, intermediate, beginner), students with a raw score of 82 or above would be placed in the advanced group, students with raw scores ranging from 58 to 81 would be placed in the intermediate group, and students with raw scores of 57 or lower would be placed in the beginners group.

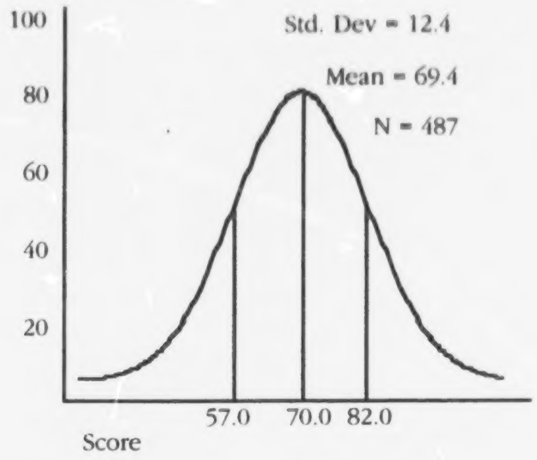
In order to match the raw scores to the equivalent Rasch-generated student ability estimates, we looked at the *Quest* 2.1 output in the "score" column for all students who scored at the lower cut point and the equivalent student ability estimates. We identified a common ability estimate equivalent to the upper and lower cut point scores on the SLEP test (see Table 3). For a visual representation of the hypothetical cut points plotted on the score distribution, see Figure 1.

Table 3: Descriptive Statistics of SLEP Test Data and Equivalent Student Ability Estimates ($N = 487$, 150 items)

Statistic	Raw Score	Rounded	Ability Estimate (Rasch)
M	69.36	70.00	-.13
SD	12.38		
Upper cut point	81.74	82.00	.26
Lower cut point	56.98	57.00	-.57

We then looked at the data to identify those students with discrepancies, where their raw score suggested they should be in one level (advanced, intermediate, beginner) but their Rasch-generated student ability estimate placed them in another. Recall that the data was sorted by *Quest* 2.1 according to student ability estimates in descending order

Figure 1: Hypothetical Cut Points on Test Score Distribution



(Table 2). We identified students whose raw scores were below the higher raw score cut point but whose ability estimates were above the student ability estimate cut point. For example, a student, such as case 1069 (see Table 4 for sample *Quest* 2.1 output), with a raw score of 75 would be placed in the intermediate level, but based on his or her student ability estimate of .33, would be placed in the advanced group. We repeated the procedure for the lower cut point.

Table 4: Sample *Quest* 2.1 Output

Case Estimates In Estimate Order All on All (*n* = 487, L = 150, Probability Level= .50)

NAME	SCORE	MAXSCR	ESTIMATE	ERROR	INFIT MNSQ	OUTFT MNSQ	INFT t	OUTFT t
43 1043	95	129	1.13	.22	.94	.85	-.57	-.66
225 1225	107	150	1.13	.19	.85	.70	-1.83	-1.77
69 1069	75	127	.33	.20	.81	.73	-2.62	-1.97

As shown in Table 5, there were a number of discrepancies between placement decisions using raw scores and decisions using Rasch-generated student ability estimates. Using the raw score cut points described in Table 3, 74 students were placed in the advanced level, 333 in the intermediate level, and 80 in the beginner level. However, using the Rasch-generated student ability cut points, 82 students were placed in the advanced level, 337 in the intermediate level, and 68 in the beginner level.

We identified 20 students whose raw scores would place them in one level but whose student ability estimates would place them in another. Eight students were found whose ability estimates placed them in the advanced group, while their raw scores placed them in the middle group. Twelve students who would have been placed in the beginner group based on raw scores were placed in the intermediate group based on student ability estimates.

Table 5: Discrepancies in Student Placement

Students Placed Using Raw Scores			
Level:	Advanced	Intermediate	Beginner
Score:	82 and above	81 to 58	57 and below
Number of Students:	74	333	80
Students Placed Using Rasch Ability Estimates			
Level:	Advanced	Intermediate	Beginner
Score:	.26 and above	.25 to -.56	-.57 and below
Number of Students:	82	337	68

Discussion

In this study, we attempted to refine our placement decisions by obtaining more information using Rasch (IRT) analysis. We found there were 20 discrepancies between student placement using their raw scores and their ability estimates generated by IRT analysis, meaning that 20 students in this hypothetical situation were potentially misplaced (5% of all test takers in the group). We therefore suggest that test administrators could use this procedure to identify such students. We also suggest that test administrators should investigate which scoring method, raw scores or Rasch student abilities, is the best predictor of group membership for their situation. Such an investigation would involve collecting longitudinal data on students' progress and ultimate achievement in their classes, as well as administrative procedures to identify misplaced students and reassign them once the program has started. While an IRT analysis is not a substitute for an in-depth analysis and development of placement tests and placement procedures, IRT can be used by program administrators to make the best out of a less than ideal situation.

While the results of this study cannot be generalized to other schools that use the SLEP test, the tools outlined in this paper can be applied to all situations involving tests where there are 100 or more test takers. We urge educators to use IRT in making placement decisions, and then to report the successes and challenges of doing so in real life programs. Of particular interest would be reports on the use of IRT in conjunction with longitudinal data to investigate whether the Rasch model of student ability and item difficulty estimates based on an initial group of test takers held for subsequent test takers with much higher or lower levels of ability.

Acknowledgments

We would like to thank Steve Ross for his assistance on Item Response Theory and the finer points of using Quest 2.1. *We would also like to thank Dale T. Griffee and two anonymous* JALT Journal *reviewers for their helpful comments on an earlier draft of this article.*

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(Received September 16, 1999; revised February 26, 2000)

Perspectives

Is English Cinderella, a Kidnapped or Adopted Child, or Godzilla? Diverse Perspectives and Pedagogical Conflicts

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This paper reviews recent literature in both English and Japanese addressing issues concerning the spread of English as an international language. It categorizes diverse perspectives on this subject in accordance with a set of metaphors: Cinderella, a kidnapped or adopted child, and the monster Godzilla.[1] The paper then highlights some pedagogical conflicts derived from this diversity of perspectives and closely examines how such conflicts are reflected in the teaching of English in the Japanese education system. In conclusion, the author suggests that this set of metaphors can provide a good framework for discussing the future direction of English education in Japan.

本論は国際語としての英語の広がりに関する諸問題に言及した英語と日本語の最近の文献を調査し、英語の普及についての様々な見解を「シンデレラ」「誘拐された、あるいは養子にされた子供」「ゴジラ」の三つの比喩に基づいて分類する。本論はさらに、このような見解の多様性に由来する教育上の問題のいくつかに焦点を当て、それらが日本の英語教育においてどのように表われているかを詳細に検討する。結論として、この一組の比喩が、将来の日本の英語教育の方向を議論するための適切な枠組みになりうることを示す。

Divergent voices have been raised in response to the accelerated spread of English towards the end of the 20th century. Some people have rejoiced at the appearance of the first truly global language in human history, expecting that it will perform a more and more important function in further internationalizing society. Others have focused on the diversification of the language, one side worrying about what it sees as fragmentation and insisting upon the importance of maintaining Standard English but the other side positively recognizing this diversification and acknowledging the ownership of the language by non-native speakers. Still others have focused on the darker, aggressive side of its expansion, warning that the growing hegemony of English can be dangerous and harmful. The use of metaphors may help us put

JALT Journal, Vol. 22, No. 2, November, 2000

this complicated situation in perspective. As Lakoff and Johnson (1980) suggest, metaphors structure how we perceive and how we think, and they have the power to define reality.

English as Cinderella

An implication of this metaphor should be clear to everyone: The rise of English can be seen as an amazing success story. Originally English was only a small dialect brought to Britain by Anglo-Saxons in the 5th century, but now it has attained the status of the world's most common language. This is mainly because of the power of the British Empire in the 18th and 19th centuries and the influence of the United States in the 20th century. Today it is "more widely scattered, more widely spoken and written, than any other language has ever been" (McCrum, Cran, & MacNeil, 1986, p. 19), and it is called by various names, such as "the universal language," "the world's lingua franca," "a universally accepted world language," or "*the* language of the planet." A huge body of literature gives detailed accounts for this apparent linguistic miracle (e.g., Bryson, 1990; Crystal, 1988, 1997a, 1997b; Graddol, 1997; Graddol, Leith, & Swann, 1996; Hirano, 1999; McCrum et al., 1986; Quirk & Stien, 1990).

Let's take a very brief look at the numerical data Crystal (1997a) presents. In the reign of Queen Elizabeth I (1558-1603), the number of English speakers was between five and seven million, while by the beginning of the reign of Queen Elizabeth II in 1952, the number grew fiftyfold to 250 million. Now, at the end of the 20th century, it is far over 300 million. These are just the numbers of native speakers. Crystal estimates that there are 150 to 300 million speakers in the Outer Circle and 100 to 1000 million in the Expanding Circle, in accordance with Kachru's (1985) three concentric circles representing different ways in which English is used: the Inner Circle as L1, the Outer Circle as L2, and the Expanding Circle as EFL.

The success does not only mean an increase in the number of speakers. The uses of English vary tremendously. It is the most widely used language for international commerce, diplomacy, popular arts, and sports events. It is the leading language of science, medicine, technology, and academic conferences and publications. More recently, it is the dominant language for computer hardware, software, networking, and e-mail. In short, English is an important language because of its "vehicular load" (Kachru & Quirk, 1981, XV).

English as Cinderella also represents great expectations for the future role of the language. As the reader of the fairy tale naturally believes that Cinderella will become a wise and merciful princess and bring happiness to everyone in her realm, many people expect that the greater spread of English will be beneficial for the world because it will promote mutual understanding and cooperation worldwide and thus contribute to welfare and peace in the global village. Such high expectations are expressed in various ways. For example, Krishnaswamy and Aziz (1983) say that it is our good fortune that we have English as a candidate for a much-needed international auxiliary language, and we should not let this opportunity escape. Shaw (1983) says that the world has finally decided to fully accept the gift the British have given it. McConell (1995) says that with English one can become a global citizen. Of course, it is worth noting, as we will see later, that there are people who are skeptical about the future of the language. Graddol (1997) says "the future of English is more complex and less predictable than has usually been assured" (p. 1).

English as a Kidnapped or Adopted Child

The spread of a language leads to its diversification. Today it is common knowledge that there are numerous varieties of English, not only British English, American English, or Australian English but also so-called New Englishes such as Indian English, South African English, Nigerian English, Singapore English, and Hong Kong English. In addition, it is often said that other new Englishes such as Korean English or Japanese English are being formed in the Expanding Circle. Thus, the concept of English is extremely diverse, probably more diverse than any single language has ever been (McArthur, 1998). Numerous publications have documented this diversity (e.g., Bailey, 1991; Cheshire, 1991; Honna, 1990; Kachru, 1986; McArthur, 1998; Trudgill & Hannah, 1982).

English can be seen as a kidnapped child for some native speakers who mourn the loss of its exclusive ownership. They deplore changes or "degenerations" and "corruptions" that the language is going through and want to retrieve "parental authority" based on the feeling that the language is theirs by historical right. They also feel anxious that it will change into unidentifiable different forms. Indeed, many observers express concerns that if English continues to develop at this pace, it will split further apart and eventually separate into mutually incomprehensible languages. Even now, according to McArthur (1998), "incomprehension (whether mutual or in one direction) is a common state within English as a world language" (p. xiv).

Such concerns naturally lead to the renewed recognition of the importance of Standard English. Quirk (1993) argues against the currently popular idea that any kind of English is as good as any other and emphasizes the necessity to maintain Standard or institutionalized English. Taking a similar position, Widdowson (1994) asserts that the language must be protected and preserved and changes must be seen not only as peripheral but also as radial and traceable back to the stable center of the standard, otherwise things will fall apart. From the standpoint that language is power, Honey (1997) insists that seemingly egalitarian notions of New Englishes actually hold back language learners, denying them access to Standard English and hindering opportunities it makes available.

On the other hand, English can be seen as an adopted child for many non-native speakers who make full use of it in their daily lives and claim as their own. Data showing that the number of people who speak English as a second language will soon exceed the number of native speakers, and the far larger number of speakers in the Expanding Circle (see Crystal, 1997a; Graddol, 1997) suggest that English is now used in various parts of the world more frequently in the absence of native speakers than in their presence. In countries with multilingual populations such as India and the Philippines, not only is it used as a convenient means of communication, but it also functions to help unify the nation. Thus, it is natural for non-native English speakers in various social contexts to say, "Since we have adopted this child, we have the right to foster her in whatever way we want to."

One extreme version of this view can be found in leading black South African academic Njabulo Ndebele's (1987) statement that the very concept of an international or world language is an invention of Western imperialism. He suggests that "South African English must be open to the possibility of its becoming a new language" and that "this may happen not only at the level of vocabulary, but also with regard to grammatical adjustments that may result from the proximity of English to indigenous African Languages" (p. 13). This view may be too radical for many to accept since he implies that linguistic changes should be made intentionally, but the basic attitude of speakers of New Englishes who regard the language as a part of their cultural heritage and as a means to express their ethnic identity is supported and encouraged by many ELT professionals (e.g., Kachru, 1983, 1986; Kirkpatrick, 1998; Nelson, 1992).

Turning to the educational literature published in Japan, we can find various comments and proposals that give support for the diversification of English. The leading linguist Suzuki Takao (1975, 1985, 1999) insists that Japanese people should learn English primarily as a means of sending information about Japan to the world. He claims that it is not English but "Englic," a kind of international auxiliary language that Japanese should try to acquire, and that certain characteristics of Japanese

English should be internationally recognized and accepted. Writer Oda Makoto and interpreter and former member of the House of Councilors Kunihiro Masao take a similar position. Oda (1976) proposes that "Englanto," a word coined from English and Esperanto, should be widely promoted, and Kunihiro (1972, 1999) emphasizes the importance of learning to use simplified and de-Anglo-Americanized English, likening it to a kind of Morse Code. In the field of sociolinguistics, Honna Nobuyuki (1990, 1993), the chief editor of *Asian Englishes* since 1998, has conducted extensive research on varieties of Asian Englishes and their linguistic and functional characteristics. He considers the possibility that English as an Asian language can play a more important role in communication among Asian people.

In summary, the pair of metaphors, "kidnapped" and "adopted," symbolizes the conflict between maintaining a central standard of English and acknowledging different varieties as legitimate forms in their own right. In reality, this may be all a matter of degree, but in principle, the dilemma is sticky, because the former view in its extremely conservative form would inevitably lead to an ideological assertion that one variety (perhaps British or American) is superior to any other one, while the latter view in its extremely liberal pluralist form would promote further drastic diversification and as a result frustrate the very purpose of having a means for international communication. While Crystal (1997a) offers a certain prospect for the appearance of "World Standard Spoken English," Graddol (1997) implies that it would be too optimistic to expect that a single world standard will naturally develop, forming a supranational variety which must be learned by global citizens of the 21st century. At present, it might be comforting to believe Strevens' (1982) rather simplistic statement that "as long as teachers continue to teach the lexico-grammar of 'educated/educational English,' the unity of the language will transcend its immense diversity" (p. 40).

English as the Monster Godzilla

What is an attractive princess or a dear child to some people can be a terrible monster to others. Just as Godzilla emerges from the sea onto land and destroys people and property, English crosses the oceans and damages other languages and cultures.

It is true that there are many factors behind the spread of a language throughout the world, but no one can deny that one of the most important factors is the political, especially military, power of people who speak the language. The image of English as Godzilla is most prominently associated with historical events in the process of the expansion of the British Empire. In essence, to quote Dissanayake (1993), "English was introduced to the British colonies in Asia, Africa and the Caribbean as a vital appendage of British colonial rule, one that was to be used as an instrument of oppression, alienation and marginalization of the indigenous peoples" (p. 336). For many of those colonized and subjugated, English was nothing but a threat, and it is no wonder that such a horrible image still strongly persists.

English as Godzilla represents not only the past memories of oppressive colonial experiences but also recent public sentiment against the continued spread of English. As negative effects of the globalization of English that can be identified from anecdotal evidence and observations, Alexander (1999) lists such effects as "being compelled to buy into Anglo-Saxon imperial ideology," "McDonaldization," "belittling of a person's native language," and "undermining indigenous native tongues and cultures through dissemination of implicit values" (p. 33). In fact, as is well known, France has laws banning the use of English in certain public domains, and anti-English movements can be observed in many other countries such as Germany, Mexico, Myanmar, and India (see Crystal, 1997b).

There may be nothing new about protests against a dominant language or language conflicts in general. What we must pay close attention to is that in the past decade critical views on English throughout the world have been presented by English language scholars and ELT professionals.

The most influential publication here is Phillipson's (1992) *Linguistic Imperialism,* which reveals the inner structure of the empire of the English language as the successor of the British Empire. By analyzing numerous documents of the British Council and other organizations, he demonstrates that it has been a deliberate policy of the British and American governments to promote and perpetuate the worldwide use of English for their economic and political advantages, and that, in order to achieve this purpose, self-serving tenets of ELT have been established and myths about the special values and usefulness of the language created. Thus, according to his account, the current status of English is not a natural consequence of world forces but a result of the success of the policy. Phillipson's critical standpoint is based on the idea of linguistic equality elaborated in *Linguistic Human Rights* (Skutnabb-Kangas & Phillipson, 1994).

Sharing Phillipson's critical perspective, Pennycook (1994, 1995) argues against the dominant English-as-an-international-language discourse that considers its spread to be natural, neutral, and beneficial, and he examines social, cultural, economic, and political implications of the hegemony of English in view of a whole system of power/knowledge relationships. Pennycook (1998) also closely examines the colonial origins of the dominant discourse on the current status of English and demonstrates that colonial discourses still permeate applied linguistics and ELT. The permeation of colonial discourse into ELT literature is also identified and analyzed by Susser (1998) and Kubota (1999) in terms of the concept of Othering.

In this decade in Japan as well, some scholars in the field of English studies and education have raised strongly critical voices against the dominance of English. For example, the international communication specialist Tsuda Yukio (1990, 1996) perceives the dominance of English as something to be resisted. He criticizes not only native speakers' tendency to view English as an intrinsically valuable and useful language but also Japanese people's predisposition to accept such a view blindly, using such terms as "English conversation syndrome" or "English complex." As a token of resistance, he holds up the principle of equality in communication and proposes the establishment of international communication treaties to guarantee the use of one's mother tongue at international conferences.

Furthermore, sociolinguist and educator Nakamura Kei (1989, 1993) defines social characteristics of English as invasive and aggressive and from this viewpoint traces the process of the expansion of English within the British Isles and into African and Asian countries. He also analyzes Japanese English education in terms of systems, textbooks, and examinations. He points out that the system is based upon the ideological assumption that English and English culture are superior to other languages and cultures.

Moreover, English literature researcher Ohishi Shunichi (1990, 1994, 1997) grasps the problem of English imperialism in the macro-historical context of the West ruling the East, referring to Edward Said and various other post-colonial and post-modernist writers. For him, the worldwide dominance of English is a matter not only for sociolinguistics but also for specialists in philosophy and contemporary thought. From this perspective, he attempts to deconstruct myths of English, urges multilingualism, and aspires to the linguistic utopianism expressed in the novels by James Joyce.

Pedagogical Conflicts

The unprecedented spread of a language and its manifold uses naturally requires the reconsideration of established ideas of language and language education. The diverse perspectives of English described above are interrelated with various issues of English teaching in different parts of the world today. This part of the paper will highlight some pedagogical conflicts derived from these diverse perspectives and closely examine how such conflicts are reflected in the teaching of English in the Japanese education system.

Conflicting Models

One pedagogical conflict that has become conspicuous with the emergence of newly identified forms of English involves models for teaching English. The conflict is typically expressed by Strevens' (1981) question: "If Educational Nigerian English exists as a recognizable, identifiable entity, should that form become the model and target used in teaching of English in the schools of Nigeria?" (p. 4). Strevens does not give a simple answer to this question, but undoubtedly the assumption that only British or American Standard English can or should be the authoritative model for every learner is increasingly questioned. According to Kachru (1986), a new, dynamic approach for the teaching of English around the world entails the "rejection of a native *monomodel* concept and acceptance of a *polymodel* concept" (p. 115).

For English education in Japan as well, the polymodel concept seems to be becoming important because its overall objective is obviously shifting from learning about the UK and the USA to acquiring a means for communicating with people from various parts of the world. However, which variety in addition to British and American English should be accepted as a model for Japanese learners is a complicated question. Some people say that Japanese should learn "International English" (*kokusai eigo*), but such an idea makes little sense in terms of the choice of a model because nobody speaks "International English" as a codified form of English. Honna and Takeshita (1998) criticize Japan's attraction to native speaker English, especially Anglo-American English, and urge the importance of developing learners' confidence in Japanese English, regarding it as a legitimate variety. Though confidence in its general sense is important, it is highly questionable whether Japanese English can be identified as a legitimate variety. At least it can not be paralleled with Indian English or Nigerian English.

This question is also related to whether or not, or to what extent, other Asian varieties of English should be incorporated in teaching English in Japan. On the assumption that English is an important means for communication among Asian people, it would be legitimate to claim that Japanese students should learn or at least familiarize themselves with these varieties. Honna and Takeshita (1998) also report how the city of Yokohama is employing people from such countries as Sri Lanka, Malaysia, and Singapore as temporary assistant teachers whose job is to introduce and discuss their countries in English. Should more English teachers from various Asian countries be invited to Japanese schools in the JET program or other future projects? This is a highly controversial issue.

The Place of Culture

The conflict about models leads to a more fundamental, theoretical question: the question of the relationship between language and culture. The notion that a language and its culture should be taught together because they are inextricably related entities has been widely supported by language teachers. Crawford-Lange and Lange (1984), for instance, emphasize that "to study language without studying the culture of native speakers of the language is a lifeless endeavor" (p. 140). However, such a notion is now being challenged as a result of the spread of English and the diversification of purposes for learning the language. Many researchers insist that English can or should be separated from the culture of traditionally English speaking countries or their people and elaborate the rationale for using local or international cultural contexts for effective teaching, especially in EFL or EIL (English as an International Language) circumstances (e.g., Alptekin & Alptekin, 1984; Holliday, 1994; Kirkpatrick, 1998; Li, 1998; Prodromou, 1992). This suggests that the conventional cultural underpinnings of English teaching must be thoroughly reexamined.

Differences in views on the relationship between language and culture can be observed in the way university English teachers in Japan choose materials. Traditionally most Japanese university teachers have used English literature. In this case, teaching English is essentially connected with what is perceived as teaching English culture, often referred to as "Culture with a capital C." In recent years, the situation is rapidly changing, but the fundamental concept that teaching the socio-cultural norms and values of British and American people is an important part of English education can be seen in operation at universities throughout Japan. At the same time, however, there is a growing number of teachers who do not see English bound to Anglo-American culture, and they tend to choose materials with wider cultural content, more reflective of world cultures or global issues such as environmental problems or human rights problems (e.g., Akagi & Shima, 1998; Arai, 1998). A good example of such materials can be found in those developed by Cates (1999), who emphasizes the importance of the linkage between English education and global education. On the other hand, this is countered with the view that future Japanese English education should aim at enhancing learners' ability to explain Japanese culture and values to foreigners. Suzuki (1999) strongly proposes that English lessons should center on "things Japanese," with emphasis on translation practice from Japanese to English of literary texts and other social and historical documents. In his view, this is extremely important to shift the foreign language education paradigm from a receiver-type to a sender-type.

Though the development of cross-cultural understanding or awareness is often set forth as an objective of English education in Japan, it seems that classroom practices are too diverse or even confusing. The concept of culture is, of course, inherently difficult to define. As Mills (quoted in Holliday, 1994) states, it is "one of the spongiest words" (p. 21), but what is important to recognize here is that the spread of English is making the definition of culture in language education more and more complicated. Should English, as typically taught in an EFL setting like Japan, be considered as a language bound to Anglo-American Judeo-Christian culture or as a language separable from it? In the latter view, should English be perceived as a culturally neutral medium for the conveyance of information or as a language already representing many cultures of people who speak New Englishes in various parts of the world? If so, how can such cultures be aptly incorporated in a classroom? These theoretical questions have important practical implications that necessitate English teachers to review what they have been doing.

Negative Effects of Teaching English

Finally, there is another pedagogical conflict derived from the view of English as Godzilla. Norton (1997) poses the direct question: "Are TESOL educators perpetuating Western imperialism in different parts of the world?" (p. 425), commenting that it is a question under vigorous debate in the field of TESOL. Obviously this question is at the crux of the linguistic imperialism arguments. In response to this, Phillipson (1992) urges the reexamination of ELT from a macro social and political perspective, and Pennycook (1994) advocates a critical pedagogy that helps learners form a counter-discourse to the dominant discourse of English through English.

Since Japan survived the imperialism of the late 19th century without being colonized, and the native language has never been seriously threatened, one may say that fears of cultural invasions and the perpetuation of Western imperialism through English are misplaced. However, Tsuda (1996) and Nakamura (1996) point out that evidence of Japan's mental colonization can be found in the voluntary appropriation of numerous English words via *katakana*. According to them, this appropriation is often not only unnecessary but also even obscene in the sense that it represents a willful denial of Japanese identity. Though it is hard to tell whether or not, or to what extent, such a phenomenon can be attributed to English education at school, it is legitimate to think that English teachers have to be concerned about it.

Furthermore, it is important to note that English is *de facto* a compulsory subject in high schools and that it is the only foreign language for the vast majority of Japanese people to learn. Nakamura (1993, 1996) sees this extreme English-centeredness as a grave problem reflecting Japanese people's blind worship of English that leads them to disregard other languages and the people who speak them. Thus, he proposes the introduction of an elective system in Japanese school foreign language education, implying the necessity of reducing English hours in curricula. Such a proposal inevitably involves some inner conflict for English teachers.

Conclusion

English can be Cinderella, a kidnapped or adopted child, or the monster Godzilla, depending upon how one perceives it. This set of metaphors makes us acutely aware of the unprecedented sociolinguistic reality created by the spread of English throughout the world and of the existence of diverse perspectives on English as an international language. It also helps us to reexamine the relationships among language, power, culture, and identity and to think about various problems and conflicts in teaching and learning the language. In this light, I suggest that the set of metaphors can provide a good framework for discussing the future direction of English education in Japan.

At present in Japan there are various important issues related to English education. A hot social issue concerns the opinion expressed by the Prime Minister's advisors at the beginning of 2000 on the future possibility of adopting English as the second official language of the nation. The pros and cons on this opinion have been widely discussed. Different voices have also been raised about the basic guidelines issued by the Ministry of Education in 1997 for introducing English at elementary schools and redefining English as a required subject in junior high schools. Other important issues may include the place of English and other foreign languages as part of university liberal arts education after the deregulation of university curricula in 1991 and the roles of native English teachers and Japanese English teachers in the JET program, which has existed since 1987. A more general issue is the long-standing debate between those who insist upon the need to develop practical communication ability and those who support the conventional type of instruction based on the grammar-translation method as part of learners' intellectual training.

All of these issues are essentially related to the most fundamental question: "What is English for Japanese living in the world tomorrow?" I believe we as English teachers are responsible for fully discussing the question and presenting well-grounded opinions to the public and students. To fulfill such a responsibility, it is indispensable to deepen our understanding of the nature of English as a global language in a broad sociolinguistic perspective and to examine the implications for the Japanese in light of their own particular historical, social, cultural, and ideological background. I believe the set of metaphors around which I have centered this paper will be useful for such an inquiry. Only through thorough discussions can we overcome the incompatibility of diverse perspectives and gain a new perspective that is truly suitable for Japanese English education in the next century.

Acknowledgements

The author would like to thank James Porcaro, David Lobrey, and the two anonymous reviewers for their valuable suggestions and comments on earlier versions of this paper.

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Note

1. At the 1998 JACET Conference in Okayama, Kip Cates introduced the three metaphors of English as Cinderella, a kidnapped baby, and Godzilla, which David Graddol originally used in his speech at the 1998 Conference of the English Teachers Association of Israel in Jerusalem. The author changed "baby" to "child," considering that English has already grown into "childhood," and added "an adopted child" as a metaphor representing the non-native speaker's view.

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(Received December 7, 1999; revised June 27, 2000)

Why Use Ads in the Foreign Language Classroom?

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This article reviews recent work in the areas of language awareness, language play, and culture on the use of advertisements in foreign language teaching. The arguments for the use of advertisements are examined, examples of how advertising might be used in these areas are given, and suggestions are made regarding how advertising research could help to maximize the value of ad-based materials in the three contexts considered.

言語についての認識、言葉あそび、文化の分野における最近の研究をふまえ、外国語教育における広告の使用について考察する。広告の使用を論じ、上記の三つの分野での広告使用例を挙げる。さらに、異なる三つのコンテクストにおいて、いかに広告の研究が広告を用いた教材の質を最大限に高めるかを提案したい。

The language-teaching profession has long had advocates of the classroom use of advertising as authentic material (e.g., Davis, 1997; Doering, 1993; Mollica, 1979), but their enthusiasm appears to have had little impact. Advertisements are still rarely used in mainstream EFL texts, and when they are, it is often for tried and true activities, e.g., related to job applications. There are many reasons for the scarcity of advertisements in pedagogical material but one of the most important is that until quite recently little research was available regarding their benefits. Leech (1966) and two highly critical books by Geis (1982) and Vestergaard and Schrøder (1985) were the main sources.

Since the early '90s the situation has changed dramatically with books by Cook (1992), Goddard (1998), Myers (1994), and Tanaka (1994) mainly on consumer advertising, by Bruthiaux (1996) on classified advertising, and by Forceville (1996) on the visual language of advertisements. This boom in advertising research has allowed for increasingly informed discussions of the use of advertisements in the foreign language (FL) classroom, especially with reference to language awareness work, language play, and culture learning. Language awareness researchers have ar-

JALT Journal, Vol. 22, No. 2, November, 2000

gued that learners need to learn *about* language in addition to learning the language. Language play researchers have suggested that learners need opportunities to experiment and play with the language. Culture learning researchers have stressed that learners need to come to terms with the values and assumptions of a target culture and to find a place for themselves within its discourses. Thus, researchers in all three areas have stressed that advertising can be a valuable source of materials for these purposes. These developments suggest that language teachers will use ads more often and for a greater range of reasons in years to come.

To support an informed use of advertisements in the FL classroom, this paper critically examines arguments for the use of ads in FL teaching within the areas of language awareness, language play, and culture learning. In the following sections the relevant ideas will be summarized, examples of how ads might be used will be given, and the ideas will be related to advertising research by showing where research supports the ideas, where further research is desirable, and where caution is advisable.

Ads and Language Awareness

Language, as Yaguello (1998) has pointed out, is a "game (a structure) whose rules are frequently bent. It allows all kinds of cheating and hitting below the belt and it is quite impossible to define precisely the overall scope of what is allowed and what is not" (p. 17). This view of language suggests that knowledge of the rules is necessary, but so is an understanding of what happens when the rules are bent. Teachers and learners need to recognize what Jakobson (1988) has called the "poetic function" (p. 37) of language. McRae (1996) suggests this orientation when he argues for "a philosophy of language teaching which incorporates examples of text of any kind that demonstrate how language works within the rules and beyond the rules" (p. 20).

McRae is not suggesting that rules can be neglected. What he envisages is a balanced approach that "encourages an awareness of the language system and how it works at the same time as showing the range of flexibility the system allows for (and indeed encourages)" (p. 19). Language learning should, therefore, focus not just on the construing of meaning but also on "discussion, reflection, and consideration of meaning" (p. 20). For this purpose he advocates that language teaching should include work with creative language, which he refers to as literature with a small "l."

McCarthy and Carter (1994) make a similar argument when they propose that "literary text is an important vehicle for raising language awareness" (p. 117). Like McRae, they are not working with a narrow definition of literature. "Literary uses of language and the necessary skills for its interpretation go routinely with all kinds of text, spoken and written" (Carter & McCarthy, 1995, p. 320). Poetic or literary uses of language are all around us. They are in the jokes, puns, and allusions of everyday conversation and newspaper headlines, in the speeches of politicians, in songs, in graffiti, in advertising copy, and, of course, in popular and canonical works of literature. Carter and Nash (1990) suggest that it is more profitable to think of literariness as a matter of degree and propose using six criteria to determine a text's degree of literariness.[1]

One important practical implication of this broad definition of literariness is that a wide range of discourses can be used to help learners develop language awareness, including advertising. A BMW advertisement from Coyne (1997) provides a good example of how ads can be used to do this.[2] This advertisement consists of a small photograph of a BMW and a business letter purportedly written by John S. Miller of BMW America's marketing division to Mr. C. van Tune, editor of *Motor Trend Magazine*:

> Dear Mr. van Tune:
>
> Thank you for selecting the BMW 5 Series as Motor Trend's 1997 "Import Car of the Year." This is truly a prestigious honor. Especially considering this year's list of exceptional candidates.
>
> Incidentally, I did notice that our car has not yet been returned. I've enclosed a photograph to aid in its identification.
>
> Sincerely,
>
> John S. Miller,
> Marketing
> (Coyne, 1997, p. 65)

The literary aspect of this ad that is particularly relevant here is what Carter and Nash (1990) call re-registration. Literary language regularly "re-registers" or borrows language from other registers or genres. Auden's poem "The Unknown Citizen" "makes use of bureaucratic registers" (Carter and Nash, 1990, p. 38). Richardson's *Pamela*, an epistolary novel, exploits the genre of personal letters. In the same sort of way, this BMW ad exploits the business letter genre.

The interesting thing about the re-registration of the business letter is that the borrowing is not wholesale. The audience is expected to recognize that it is supposed to be a business letter but not to be fooled into thinking that it is real.[3] The letter is simply a "form of disguise" (Leech, 1966, p. 100) and the ad would fail if the reader did not recognize this and ended up wondering why BMW had reprinted a letter of complaint about a car that had not been returned.

The fact that the borrowing is partial and imperfect in this ad (and others) can be exploited in language awareness work. For example, the students could be instructed to (a) identify the text as a business letter, (b) enumerate the features that helped them identify it, (c) consider what features of it are "unbusinesslike," and (d) write an improved version.

The first three steps of the sequence would help to raise the students' awareness of the characteristics of business letters and of how the ad has played with these. In formal terms, the letter looks fine; it is laid out correctly and has all the elements that one would expect, from the letterhead to the closing. However, the letter's combination of the purposes of thanking the addressee and asking him to return a car seems odd. The personal "thank you" to the editor for selecting the BMW seems naive because normally an expert jury would have made the selection. The first paragraph contains a sentence without a finite verb. The first sentence of the second paragraph is weak and indirect. If BMW had provided a car for testing, they would have agreed on the conditions for doing so with *Motor Trend*, and this would be the moment to refer to the agreement. The final sentence about enclosing a photograph to aid in the car's identification is just silly, although it does allow the advertiser to include a visual of the product.

Because the letter's combination of gratitude and mild complaint strikes a discordant note, the writing task at the end of this four-part sequence could consist either of writing an appropriate response to the happy news about the award or of writing a polite but firm letter demanding the return of the BMW. In this way, the whole sequence would involve "reflection on language and the development of more explicit knowledge about language" and this would also "feed into the process of learning to use the language more proficiently" (McCarthy and Carter, 1994, p. 134).[4]

The use of literary devices in ads has been commented on widely (see, in particular, Cook, 1992; Leech, 1966; Myers, 1994), and this supports the idea that advertisements could be a valuable resource for language awareness work. At the same time, teachers also need to be aware of a major difference between advertising and other literary discourses. Advertising tends to be highly visual, and this can be a problem.

Medium dependence, or the degree to which a text depends on other media, especially visual ones, is actually the first of Carter and Nash's (1990) six criteria of literariness: "The more literary a text the less it will be dependent on another medium or media" (p. 38). This is an argument for saying that advertising, with its tendency to depend on visual elements to get its message across, is less literary than poetry, for example.

While visual elements may reduce the literariness of ads, they do not necessarily reduce their artistry. In some cases the picture mainly serves as a simple illustration of a product, but in other cases, the use of visuals is highly complex. Forceville (1996), for example, distinguishes two varieties of metaphor in advertising that are completely visual and a third that uses text and visual elements. In cases where a picture illustrates a product, the visual input is likely to help learners, but dealing with more complex uses of visuals could require a degree of visual literacy that learners may not have. This problem should not be underestimated. Forceville (1996) discusses the case of a Chinese participant in an experiment on visual metaphor whose idiosyncratic responses were strongly influenced by failure to recognize vital components in some IBM ads. She mistook a beacon for a sailing boat and did not recognize a tuning fork.

The existence of this problem does not mean that teachers should avoid using ads for language awareness work. However, they should be aware of it and be prepared to deal with it, either by means of a judicious selection of ads that learners can understand visually or by devising ways of helping learners to deal with the visual problems that they encounter.

Advertising researchers could contribute here by providing more complete analyses of the many complicated uses of visuals that can be found in advertising. Forceville (1996) provides a good discussion of earlier work in this area and also offers suggestions for future research. Research into the visual and verbal/visual literacy problems of FL learners is virtually non-existent (though see Goodman, 1996, and Hewings, 1991) and here again advertising researchers could contribute.

Ads and Language Play

"The ability to play with words is a measure of language proficiency" (Yaguello, 1998, p. 3). This connection between wordplay and language proficiency suggests another fascinating possibility: that play with the code can be a direct stimulus for language learning. Nash (1980) highlights this view when he describes the value of writing verse:

> There is a paradox with which amateurs of verse will be acquainted: the more rigorous a compositional scheme, the greater its heuristic power. Rules and conditions, that is to say, enforce discoveries. The demands of a rhetorical figure, or any kind of linguistic prerequisite, urge the mind to rehearse and methodologically ransack its store of vocabulary. In this process, phonetic and kinetic (rhythmic) features may be compelling stimuli. Consider, for example, Edward Lear's comic denunciation of the monks of Mount Athos: Those *muttering, miserable, mutton-hating, man-avoiding, misogynic, morose and merriment-marring, monotoning, many-mule-making, mournful, minced-fish and marmalade-masticating Monx.* This joyous tirade clearly owes a great deal to the stimulus of alliteration . . . (p. 87).

A writer's decision to impose a pattern of alliteration on a stretch of text has more than just artistic consequences. From the writer's perspective, the rhetorical discipline of following a pattern acts as a stimulus that, as Nash (1980) puts it, urges "the mind to rehearse and methodologically ransack its store of vocabulary" (p. 87). One might add that rehearsing vocabulary and ransacking the mental lexicon are exactly the sort of things that FL teachers would like learners to be doing.

"Play" is a difficult concept to define, as Cook (1997) has pointed out, and the problem extends to defining "language play." Two types of play have been distinguished by Cook: play at the formal level, and play at the semantic level. This is very similar to Leech's (1969) distinction between "schemes" and "tropes" (pp. 74-76), and it is convenient to adopt Leech's terms here for shorthand reference.

Leech (1969) defines schemes as "foregrounded repetitions of expression" (p. 74), that is, the salient use of phonological, graphological, or formal (grammatical or lexical) patterns. Alliteration, assonance, and rhyme are probably the best-known representatives of this class of rhetorical figure. Tropes are "foregrounded irregularities of content" (Leech, 1969, p. 74), that is, salient deviations of a semantic nature. Metaphor and metonymy are two well-known examples of this class of rhetorical figure.

The idea that play with the form or meaning of the language contributes to language acquisition is not new, at least in L1 circles. Crystal (1998) suggests that it contributes to L1 acquisition at various levels. Play with sounds contributes to pronunciation; play with word endings is valuable for grammar; play with meaning stimulates semantic development; and all varieties of language play contribute to metalinguistic awareness. The joy that children derive from being naughty with the language leads Crystal (1998) to the observation that, "if there is a LAD (a 'Language Acquisition Device,' as proposed by Chomsky and others), it seems to be a BADLAD" (p. 169). A "playful LAD" might be even more apt as it lacks the negative connotations of "bad."[5]

Arguments in support of a greater role for language play in FL teaching can be found in a series of articles by Cook (1996), whose main argument is based on the *functions* of language in society. Language serves ideational and interpersonal functions in everyday life. It is used to manage "the world around us and to form and maintain extensive social relationships" (p. 198). Cook stresses that language also has non-utilitarian functions because it is often used "for recreation, relaxation and pleasure" (p. 198). He characterizes literary texts, advertising, and other discourses that serve this recreational function as "space-filling discourses" because they "fill up the spaces between necessary activity" (p. 198). These discourses fill their space with "whatever seems to please people most . . . play with the codes of communication themselves" (p. 226).

This function of language play also provides Cook's main argument for using playful discourses in FL teaching. Cook (1994) suggests that the classroom should not be a place where we focus exclusively on utilitarian uses of language, but it should also provide room for students "to escape the demands of social interaction rather than confront them: a protected environment where we can gain confidence and skill with the language code through the pleasures of language play" (p. 114). "Space- filling" discourses in the FL classroom provide an opportunity for "play, a focus on the code away from the demands of immediate social and ideational skills" (Cook, 1994, p. 114) and this play with the code will, in turn, contribute to the student's mastery of the code.

Work with my own students suggests that learners can be quite happy to escape the demands of social interaction and indulge in language play. One language-play activity that I have used consists of giving the students a list of alliterative advertising language with one word in each phrase or clause changed so as to retain the original meaning but remove the alliteration (see Figure 1). Groups of students work together to reconstruct the alliterative original. For example, students were given the phrase "constructed better" and had to figure out an alliterative equivalent like the original "built better." This activity kept a group of first-year college students engaged for around fifteen minutes, and I would like to think that in the course of this engagement they were busy rehearsing words and methodologically ransacking their stores of vocabulary.[6] (For further discussion of how alliteration in slogans can be exploited, see Picken, 1999).

Figure 1: Alliterative Language-Play Task Using Advertising Language

Changed Version	Original Words (with alliteration)
Example: **constructed** better	built better
a better **piece** of butter	(a better bit of butter)
dazzling discount **bargains**	(dazzling discount deals)
additional economy	(extra economy)
fuller **taste**	(fuller flavor)
luscious **underwear**	(luscious lingerie)
a perfect **gift**	(a perfect present)
a **wonderful** snack	(a super snack)
temptingly **delicious**	(temptingly tasty)
Important people take the *Times*	(Top people take the *Times*)

Clearly, this example of language play in the L2 classroom barely provides even anecdotal evidence that play contributes to L2 learning. Although the idea is intuitively appealing, more research is needed before such claims can be made. In addition to the fundamental question of whether play stimulates learning in older learners, two other questions are: (a) what kind of play can be used to engage older learners? Older learners, for example, may be reluctant to spend time chanting children's nonsense rhymes such as "I'm a whale, This is my tail" (Crystal, 1998, p. 165) however much it might contribute to learning; and (b) do different kinds of play contribute to language learning in different ways with L2 learners as Crystal (1998) has suggested that they do in L1 acquisition?

For teachers interested in using advertisements for language play activities, discussions of various kinds of play are available. For schemes in advertising, see Cook (1992) on graphology, and Myers (1994) on play with sounds and sentence patterns. Discussions of tropes have tended to focus on metaphor. Forceville (1996) is a key source here. A comparison of the similarities and differences between metaphor in ads and other discourses can be found in Goatly (1997). Tanaka (1994) discusses puns and also has a chapter on metaphor.

When using ads for language play activities, it is advisable to keep in mind that advertising is a discourse with designs on its audience, and some people do not like this. Negative attitudes to advertising can ruin the fun, as Geis's (1982) response to some humorous TV commercials illustrates: "I suspect that some viewers will find these commercials amusing" (p. 126). Geis, a critic of advertising, evidently did not find the commercials amusing. Teachers should be aware that if such critical attitudes are common among their students, language play activities with ads may fail.[7]

Ads and Culture

Culture is a difficult concept to define. According to Seelye (1984), "the most widely accepted usage now regards culture as a broad concept that embraces all aspects of the life of man, from folktales to carved whales" (p. 26). He adds that "it is becoming increasingly clear that the study of language cannot be divorced from the study of culture, and vice versa" (p. 26). A clear statement of the relationship between language and culture can be found in Kramsch (1993), who proposes that culture is anchored "in the very grammar we use, the very vocabulary we choose, the very metaphors we live by" (p. 8).

The practical implication of this culture-based view of language is that the FL learner is inevitably confronted with a different culture when learning a language. Kramsch (1993) discusses how to deal with this confrontation by considering what she calls the German hermeneutic tradition, which stresses that language learners should not only learn to communicate effectively and learn about others while doing so, but that they should also get to understand themselves in the process. She sees this understanding as a "'third place' . . . that grows in the interstices between the cultures the learner grew up with and the new cultures he or she is being introduced to" (Kramsch, 1993, p. 236). Learners, in other words, have to find a place for themselves somewhere between their own cultures and the target culture.

Kramsch suggests ways in which foreign language teachers can facilitate this process. She is particularly interested in activities that help to bring out cultural content, and these ideas should be of interest even to those who do not accept her thesis about helping students find a "third place" between cultures. Many of Kramsch's suggestions involve focusing on particular dimensions of texts. In her chapter on teaching the literary text, for example, she discusses the value of varying the text's medium, genre, and audience. In a following chapter she also uses the approach of varying the audience of an advertisement to help learners become aware of its underlying cultural assumptions. Meinhof (1998) supports this technique for similar reasons.

An advertisement for the *Guardian* provides a good illustration of how Kramsch's ideas can be applied. The advertisement shows two men and a woman sitting on a bench reading newspapers while they wait to be interviewed for a job. The man with the *Guardian* exudes confidence. Sitting with his legs crossed casually and his newspaper spread wide open, he occupies the right half of the bench while the other two candidates huddle uncomfortably on the left. The advertisement asks, "Who would you like to interview first: the one with the *Telegraph*, the one with the *Times*, or the one with the mind of his own?" (Link, 1992, p. 93).

The ad was designed to appeal to a British audience, but would this approach work in Japan? The answer would depend on the extent to which "having a mind of your own" is considered an asset. In Japan, employers might be more interested in team players or graduates of top universities, especially for entry-level positions. If the students feel that this is the case, they would have to rewrite the ad accordingly, ensuring that it would appeal to a Japanese audience while sticking as closely as possible to the question pattern in the original ad. In this way, the task can highlight differences in underlying cultural values or expectations.[8]

Advertisements, then, would appear to be a valuable resource for culture-related work. In order to maximize the value of the contribution, however, further research is needed. First, the role of ads needs to be clarified. For example, Kramsch gives detailed suggestions on how ads and other authentic materials can be used but she says very little about how to select them or what to use them for. The Coca Cola advertisement that she discusses in her book was selected because it was "found particularly appropriate for Russian learners of American English because of its rich cultural connotations and its potential differences with the (then) Soviet cultural imagination" (Kramsch, 1993, p. 211). Here one needs to ask why the ad was felt to be particularly appropriate for this group of learners and what differences regarding the Soviet imagination were highlighted.

Advertising research could make a worthwhile contribution here. Corpus research could help to clarify whether there are particular values that the advertisements of a given target culture tend to appeal to, and it could also provide teachers with representative examples of ads that exploit these values. This research would help teachers make informed decisions about how they could use advertisements and save them some of the trouble of searching for relevant ads. Some work has already been done in this area. Vestergaard and Schrøder (1985) suggest that women are addressed in terms of, among others, the ideal of domesticity, the beauty ideal, and the ideal of the independent woman. Unfortunately, their findings are too general for practical application. "Domesticity" may still be used as an appeal today, but what are the specifics? How is it typically represented in terms of relationships with other members of the family and roles within those relationships? Only at this level of specificity are we likely to find meaningful differences between representations of domesticity in different cultures. Corpus research could provide details and examples.

When using ads for culture work, teachers should keep in mind that ads may not simply be *reflecting* a culture but also *contributing* to the values and patterns of behavior of members of that culture. This point is made by Fairclough (1989), who argues that advertising has actually built the consumption community because it has "provided the most coherent and persistent models for consumer needs, values, tastes and behaviour" (p. 207). Similarly, O'Barr (1994) suggests that it is a two-way relationship: "Depictions of society in advertisements have their basis in the social order, and the social order is continually re-created by reference to ideals in advertisements and elsewhere about what it should be" (p. 4). To return to Vestergaard and Schrøder's (1985) ideal of domesticity, for example, it is important to realize that advertisers may be selling consumers a particular domestic ideal and not just exploiting a widely shared one. Against this background Meinhof (1998) warns that "media discourse provides a fertile but treacherous ground for cultural learning. It can seem so close to everyday life as to almost efface any difference; it can mislead us into thinking that we are encountering the real world" (p. 9). Clearly, it is essential to come to terms with the relationship between ads and the real world. If ads are a distorted mirror of reality, teachers need to be aware of this in order to be able to help their students "see through" the distortions.

Conclusion

This paper has attempted to provide a critical examination of the main arguments for using advertisements in FL teaching within the areas of language awareness, language play, and culture learning. Language awareness researchers have stressed that successful communication is a complex affair because people play with the rules of language in a range of ways. Mastering a language, therefore, involves more than a mastery of rules, and learners need to be aware of this and learn how to deal with it in a foreign language. Learning to communicate in a foreign language is also hard work, and learners are likely to feel the need to take a break. Language play offers a meaningful way of doing so, as Cook (1994) has suggested. The possibility that this kind of play also contributes directly to language acquisition opens up a potentially major area for second language acquisition research. Learning to communicate in a foreign language also means that learners must come to terms with the culture that informs the target language at every level.

Researchers in all three areas have proposed the use of advertisements to help learners address these needs. The often literary quality of advertising discourse can provide opportunities to help learners become aware of how the rules of language can be stretched and what this may be designed to achieve. This playfulness also makes advertising a great potential source of materials for language-play activities. Finally, advertisements have a complex relationship with the culture for which they were produced, and this can provide an excellent starting point for culture-related work.

Advertising research provides considerable support for these uses of ads, but it also points to some areas where further research is needed or where problems may occur. Advertising may have literary qualities, but it is also a highly visual discourse and one with designs on its audience. These characteristics may give rise to problems when ads are used for language awareness work and for language play purposes. Researchers could contribute to an understanding of these problems by providing descriptions of the complex uses of visual elements in ads and by examining the visual and visual/verbal literacy problems that these may give rise to among FL learners. With regard to using ads for culture-related work, teachers need to be aware of the complex two-way relationship between ads and cultural values.

Corpus research could make a significant contribution to an understanding of many of the issues discussed in this paper such as how advertisements play with visual and verbal elements and how they exploit cultural values. One problem here is that the corpus linguistics literature does not discuss the specifics of creating a corpus of ads in sufficient detail. Stubbs (1992) devotes two pages to the topic, but his comments are puzzling. He criticizes Cook (1992), who never claims that his research was corpus-based, and recommends Myers (1994) even though the latter specifically states that his ads are "not offered as a representative sample" (Myers, 1994, p. vii). Useful discussions of many of the issues that come up in advertising corpus design can be found in the content analysis literature. Riffe, Lacy, and Fico (1998) provides a good starting point.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank the three anonymous reviewers of the paper and my colleague Mary Althaus for the many improvements they suggested.

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Notes

1. Carter and Nash's (1990) six criteria of literariness are: (1) medium dependence (the degree to which a text depends on other media, especially visual ones); (2) re-registration (openness to voices from other discourses); (3) interaction of levels: semantic density ("a text that is perceived as resulting from the additive interaction of several superimposed codes and levels is recognized as more literary than a text where there are fewer levels at work, or where they are present but do not interact," (p. 39); (4) polysemy (the degree to which the text can be read in more than one way); (5) displaced interaction (the degree to which speech acts in the texts are seen as direct, which they tend not to be in literary texts); and (6) discourse patterning (the degree to which discoursal patterns can be seen to represent the content).
2. Other examples can be found in Carter, Goddard, Reah, Sanger, and Bowring (1997).
3. This is also a good example of "displaced interaction," one of Carter and Nash's (1990) criteria of literariness. The speech acts of thanking Mr. van Tune and complaining to him are clearly not intended to be direct.
4. For the sequence of activities to work, it is essential to use ads that re-

register familiar genres such as the business letter. Even then unexpected problems may occur. When I recently used advertisements to teach freshman students in a content course the concept of re-registration, only two out of 24 students made the link between an anti-smoking ad and the infamous Marlboro Man advertisements that it was re-registering. This ruled out small-group discussion of how this particular example had played with its original. (Because the focus was on the *concept* of re-registration, the students were not expected to rewrite any of the ads.)

5. In the field of cognitive science Gibbs (1994) has proposed that it is not just the LAD, but also the human mind itself, that works in a fundamentally creative or poetic way. He is particularly interested in the role of metaphor and suggests that "our basic metaphorical conceptualizations of experience constrain how we think creatively and express our ideas in both everyday and literary discourse" (p. 8). For two important attempts to make a connection between metaphor research and applied linguistics, see Cameron and Low (1999a; 1999b).
6. In order to ensure that students ransack their mental lexicons, the use of electronic dictionaries should be forbidden during the activity. A majority of my students now have them, and this year I discovered that they were using their dictionaries' thesaurus function to get answers, even though they knew the target words used in the task. This defeated the purpose of the exercise.
7. In my work with ads in EFL and content courses I have not experienced negative attitudes towards ads among Japanese college students. Frustration does occur sometimes when the ad is too puzzling, but this is normally counterbalanced by laughter or cries of appreciation when the students finally understand the meaning.
8. A detailed discussion of responses to and problems encountered with tasks like this can be found in Kramsch (1993). It should be noted that Kramsch was working with groups of German and Russian language teachers and their responses were presumably more sophisticated than what one could expect from most university students in language courses in Japan.

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(Received October 7, 1999; revised July 5, 2000)

Reviews

Interfaces Between Second Language Acquisition and Language Testing Research. Lyle F Bachman and Andrew D. Cohen, Editors. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1998. 202 pp.

Reviewed by
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Second language acquisition (SLA) research has traditionally focused on learning while language testing (LT) has focused on measurement of learning. Strange as it may seem, the two areas have long remained fairly separate. This situation is changing. In 1992, the American Association for Applied Linguistics held the colloquium that led to the book, *Interfaces between Second Language Acquisition and Language Testing Research*. Original presenters and three additional researchers contributed. Although the inspiration was the colloquium, extensive recent material is included, making this book far more valuable than a simple collection of papers from a colloquium held some years ago.

The book, like the colloquium, is for SLA and LT researchers and does not introduce either testing or research methods. However, terms are defined and thinking is clearly explained through examples. The chapters are well organized, well written, and jargon-free, making them easy to read. The authors discuss issues basic to both LT and SLA, using concrete examples from several disciplines to demonstrate theoretical points. Thus, the book is both theoretical and concrete.

Because Bachman's article "Language testing – SLA interfaces" (1989) served as the starting point, the entire article is reprinted in the appendix. This article compares the aims and methods of LT and SLA research. It presents ways in which the two areas could and should combine their aims and methods to the benefit of both. Chapter 1, by Bachman and Cohen, extends the 1989 paper, with a more explicit description of the methods and goals of LT and SLA, along with numerous studies. The discussion points out how each study uses a combination of approaches to investigate problems and answer questions for which LT or SLA alone would be inadequate. This is followed by suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2, "Construct definition and validity enquiry in SLA research" by Carol A. Chapelle, is the longest and one of the most interesting in this very interesting group. The principles presented here form the backbone of the book. Chapelle discusses three views of the construct, or basic concept, underlying communicative competence and the implications of each concept for validation. The first is trait based. This is the archetypal language testing construct. In this view, communicative competence is a characteristic of individuals. Performance consistency is due to this stable characteristic. Measurement is validated by using several methods to measure a trait. Then the method effect is removed, leaving the trait component. The second is behavioral based. In this view, performance consistency is due to consistency in the circumstances surrounding a measurement rather than in the individual. Validation requires careful comparison of circumstances. The third view is interactionist and far more complex. Briefly, for interactionists, performance consistency is due to both of the above plus the metacognitive systems which control their interaction. This view is not simply additive, but requires a new framework. Validation is likewise complex, requiring several types of analysis. Chapelle uses vocabulary research to show the implications of each view of the construct, communicative competence. Later chapters build on the framework presented in this chapter.

Chapter 3, "Research on interlanguage variation: Implications for language testing," is by Elaine Tarone. Tarone first differentiates between individual differences (between people) and variation (within one person), focusing on oral production. She discusses research indicating that changes in the situation, or context of measurement, can affect the characteristics of oral production of an individual. These findings have serious implications for research and testing. For example, research is needed to determine the aspects of tasks that lead to systematic variation. Also, both researchers and test makers must specify task conditions in greater detail. She warns against making inferences unless task conditions are truly comparable and recommends developing a database of learners and contexts. This database would aid in the search for developmental sequences which could be specified in criterion-referenced scales.

Chapter 4 is "Strategies and processes in test taking and SLA" by Andrew D. Cohen. He reports on the use of a qualitative technique, verbal report, to validate tests. Test makers design tests to measure certain aspects of language. Test takers can be asked to describe how they determined their answers. This can reveal whether a test or test item measures what it intends to. When the reported strategies agree with the intentions, the test item is validated. However, if some respondents give wrong answers for right reasons or right answers for wrong reasons, there are problems that should be corrected. Studies using this type of analysis have shown, for example, that cloze tests predominantly measure local reading skill rather than global processing as was once claimed. Thus, in spite of its high reliability, the cloze test's claim to validity is undermined. Summaries, essay questions, and essays can also be analyzed through verbal reports.

Chapter 5, by Geoff Brindley, is titled "Describing language development: Rating scales and SLA." Brindley considers whether rating scale band descriptors describe the actual path of language acquisition. In other words, Brindley examines the validity of such scales from the viewpoint of SLA. Rating scales generally describe performance in a series of levels or bands. The descriptions may be detailed or general and may be intended for various purposes. The empirical basis of such scales is often not given and is rarely theoretical. Such scales need to be validated by multitrait-multimethod procedures to confirm the existence of the constructs implicit in the scales. In addition, it must be shown that the descriptors accurately depict learner behavior at each level. After an extended discussion of the problems with such scale band descriptors, Brindley suggests ways to validate them. As Brindley makes clear, this area is attracting increasing research attention.

Chapter 6, "Testing methods in context-based second language research" by Dan Douglas, is the shortest at fifteen pages. First, Douglas examines the various definitions and components of "context" that have been proposed, including internal and external context. He offers the term "discourse domain" to specify the learner's interpretation of the context. He argues that this is the most important aspect of testing and SLA research and concludes with a list of guidelines for research.

The final chapter, by Elana Shohamy, is titled "How can language testing and SLA benefit from each other? The case of discourse." Shohamy discusses three areas where LT can contribute to SLA, followed by three areas where SLA can contribute to LT. Language testing contributions regard the construct of language ability, ways to test SLA hypotheses, and criteria for measurement. Second language acquisition research contributions regard the language components to measure, tasks to use, and language variations. Shohamy uses discourse analysis to demonstrate each of her points. This chapter functions as an excellent summary of the book.

The index includes both cited authors and topics. There are some mistakes, such as mislisting all the citations for researchers named "Brown." The similarity of names may be blamed, but this kind of error reduces the usefulness of the index. Also, the style of citation is not uniform throughout the book.

What makes this book so important is that it forms a pivot. It brings together numerous strands from many areas of theory and research from the past in a way which has not been done on this scale before. It points the way to expanding and integrating research lines in the future. The contributors here are well known in either language testing or second language acquisition research. Here, the authors each move toward the center. Leaders in SLA research address LT concerns, while LT leaders advocate SLA approaches. This is the first book to provide an overview of both this research and the theoretical concerns motivating it. This book presents a challenge to those involved in LT or SLA to work together to improve the practice of both areas.

Collaborative Action Research for English Language Teachers.

Anne Burns. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1999. 259 pp.

Reviewed by
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Action research is a topic of increasing interest among both educational researchers and practicing teachers. In its broadest conception, action research focuses on finding ways of solving problems and bringing about change through applied action. In the educational realm, action research is research that is teacher initiated, takes place in the classroom, and seeks to increase understanding of classroom teaching and learning and to bring about improvements in classroom practices. For an in-depth and practical examination of action research as applied to the language teaching setting, Burns' *Collaborative Action Research for English Language Teachers* is a book worth considering.

Burns prefaces the book by stating that the notion of "teacher as researcher" has not yet been backed up by publications that focus specifically on classroom teachers working to conduct research. *Collaborative Action Research for English Language Teachers* addresses this by providing a practical introduction into why action research should be of interest to classroom teachers, the fundamental steps in action research, and the means of analyzing action research data. Burns opens Chapter 1 with a summary of a case study describing how an experienced ESL teacher joined a collaborative action research group and developed a "critical perspective on her practice and observed systematically various influential factors operating in her classroom by using action research as a powerful medium of reflection" (pp. 11-12).

Burns emphasizes collaboration in action research, stating that portrayals of action research conducted on the basis of individual teachers investigating teaching and learning in the isolation of their own classrooms are counter to the original goals of action research, which were to bring about change in social situations as the result of group problem-solving and collaboration. She cites Kemmis and McTaggart (1988,

p. 5) who state that "the approach is only action research when it is *collaborative*, though it is important to realise that the action research of the group is achieved through the ***critically examined action*** of individual group members" [emphasis in original]. Burns asserts that collaboration not only encourages teachers to share common problems and work cooperatively as a research community, but also strengthens the opportunities for the results of the research to be fed back into educational systems in a substantial way. I would be remiss not to point out that others differ in their opinion regarding collaboration as an essential element of action research. Nunan (1992) states that collaboration "should not be seen as a defining characteristic of action research" (p. 18), while Wallace (1998), in his 250-page book *Action Research for Language Teachers*, chose to devote a 35-page section specifically to collaborative action research, in which he points out that while collaboration can do much to sustain motivation, save time, and generate richer input, the emergence of differing, sometimes incompatible positions, varying levels of commitment, and differing statuses can lead to confusion and conflict, and in the worst case, suspension of the project.

In Chapter 2 Burns provides a basic framework for examining action research within the broad range of research approaches, contrasting action research with both quantitative and qualitative research. In doing so she points out that action research fulfills basic research requirements (encompassing a researchable question/issue, generating data, and allowing for analysis) and accommodates both grounded theory and data triangulation. Burns states that the characteristic features of action research include its contextuality and localization; its evaluative and reflective nature; its participatory elements; and its orientation toward generating change. Burns describes the process of doing action research as "not so much a cycle, or even a sequence of cycles, but a series of interrelated experiences involving phases of exploring, identifying, planning, collecting data, analyzing/reflecting, hypothesizing/speculating, intervening, observing, reporting, writing, and presenting" (p. 35). Chapter 3 addresses the constraints and impediments of collaborative action research, the difficulty in finding a focus, and the myriad ethical considerations which come into play in undertaking action research.

Chapters 4 and 5 introduce observational and non-observational techniques for action research data collection. The former includes teachers' notes, diaries, and journals, audio and video recording, and photographing and charting. The section on charting describes the fundamentals of sociometry, a means of gaining detailed information about the social structures and interpersonal relationships of the members of a class. The non-observational techniques are described as introspective, in that they invite personal and individual accounts of events, attitudes, and beliefs and include student interviews, surveys and questionnaires, student histories, and student documents, such as written work. Burns concludes Chapter 5 by discussing the development of "teacher metaphors," in which teachers apply introspective methods to themselves.

In Chapter 6 Burns introduces means both for evaluating research validity, a notion which is inherently problematic in action research, and for "enhancing trustworthiness in action research." An alternative to the standard quantitative measures of validity is described as through application of five validity criteria: democratic validity (inclusion of multiple voices); outcome validity (resolution of the problem); process validity (evaluation of the research process itself); catalytic validity (generating participant growth); and dialogic validity (the process of peer review). The trustworthiness of action research can be ensured by applying either triangulation, which involves gathering accounts of the teaching situation from three different views, for example, teacher, student, and observer, or using respondent checks, peer examination, consideration of rival explanations and negative cases, and monitoring for researcher bias.

In Chapter 7 Burns addresses sustaining the action, placing action research directly in the forefront of change in education and describing it as an effective means of enhancing professional development, teacher networks, research partnerships, and school renewal. Chapter 8 closes the book with four cases arguing the value of collaborative action research and Burns' concluding remarks.

My only criticism of the book is that it lacks a clear, step-by-step, "you do it" section, in which the "teacher as researcher" is, in a sense, taken by the hand and led through a single, highly transparent case, a compilation of everything introduced in the body of the book. I think that classroom teachers, always pressed for time, would appreciate a section organized on more of a "handbook" principle, a loose "fill-in-the-blanks" approach to one's first collaborative action research project.

That said, *Collaborative Action Research for English Language Teachers* does cover the territory of action research and it does so in a manner comparable to its most likely competitor, Wallace's *Action Research for Language Teachers* (1998). Burns also provides abundant references for further study, organized as "classical" large-scale action research projects, works reflecting the recent development of a critical dimension to action research, practical guides to conducting action research in the second language field, and papers identifying specific focus areas or issues in action research. The section also includes information on relevant journals, an electronic mailing list, and an action research teacher network.

By the end of the book, the question of collaboration as being fundamental to action research has become somewhat of a non-issue. After Burns states her case at the beginning of the book, most of the content is relatively neutral on this point. In her concluding remarks, Burns again stresses the advantages of collaboration; however, these points convince me neither of the absolute necessity of collaboration in conducting action research itself, nor of the premise that action research is the preferable means to bring about system-level change. This does not detract from the book, however, as I see the collaboration element as a meaningful addition to a book which will serve the needs of anyone contemplating conducting action research, given the time to master it.

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Essentials of English Language Testing. S. Kathleen Kitao and Kenji Kitao. Tokyo: Eichosha, 1999. xii + 146 pp.

Reviewed by
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Despite the title, this book serves as a primer on testing in any language. The book is written for classroom teachers and students studying to become teachers. In this respect, it succeeds. However, it will be difficult for most teachers unfamiliar with testing to use this short book to design and evaluate tests.

The book briefly covers many areas of testing, favoring breadth rather than depth in its discussion. The twenty small chapters, most of which are three to six pages long, introduce most of the common topics in classroom testing, such as validity, reliability, item and test design and evaluation, and the interpretation of test results.

Each chapter ends with either discussion or application exercises, which, with the exception of exercises in two of the chapters, do not require specific answers. Typical exercises ask the reader to examine and discuss certain aspects of tests they have taken or written and to discuss a skill-based or communicative test for a specific situation. These exercises seem a little too general and demanding, considering the scope of the text. More support and feedback in the form of examples, detailed explanations, and exercises with answers are necessary for the exercises to be effective.

The discussions and vocabulary in the book are simple. The "Key Words" section at the beginning of each chapter contains vocabulary that all readers will understand and the few statistical and technical words included are simply explained. Occasionally, though, the text comes close to over-simplification. For example, the concluding sentence of the chapter on scoring tests (p. 98) warns the reader that "[t]he scores will be used for instruction, and if the scoring is inaccurate, they are not useful for giving good instruction." Some relatively common terms in testing have been unnecessarily replaced by simpler synonyms or explanations. Replacing the useful and fairly simple words "distractor," "cloze," and "open-ended" with "incorrect option," "gap-filling," and "short answer," respectively, is unlikely to benefit teachers who are going to read other books or papers on testing.

There were some omissions that I felt were questionable. The book contains two appendices with a comprehensive list of websites and Internet resources related to language testing, but it lacks an annotated bibliography or list of suggested readings. Although many Internet sites are informative, they skip the rigorous and important reviewing process most books go through before publication. Also lacking is a discussion or description of the important concept of construct validity in the chapter on validity and reliability. Yet another conspicuous omission is the missing reference for the only scholar cited, Dell Hymes.

Readers should also be aware that some of the examples are weak. The authors warn against writing "illogical" alternatives in response options for multiple-choice questions (p. 38). Although it is not explained or clear what "illogical" means in this context, I assume it refers to morphological or syntactic errors in the response options. It is surprising, therefore, that some sample items contain grammatical errors (pp. 74, 75, 108). These and any other errors in the options should be avoided as they may lead to negative washback (Heaton, 1975; Henning, 1987). In another chapter, the definition of a subjective test has been so over-simplified that it is incorrect. The primary distinction between objective (e.g., multiple-choice) and subjective (e.g., essay or open-ended) test questions is the number and type of possible responses; but according to the text "[i]n a subjective test, the answers are not right or wrong" (p. 9). While this and many other explanations are simple, they are not always accurate.

In terms of design, the overall layout of the book is clear and organized. Appropriately divided and titled and generously spaced chapters and paragraphs help make the book less daunting than many other books on testing. However, the detailed table of contents and list of websites are not very well arranged. The headings and sub-headings are so oddly indented and spaced that scanning for terms is time-consuming, especially since there is no index or glossary.

Despite these drawbacks, the book delivers on its promise to help readers understand the basic issues and concepts in language testing. However, teachers who are interested in applying testing concepts will have to consult more comprehensive texts. For those only interested in understanding basic testing concepts, it will be difficult to find a book on language testing as short and easy to read as this one.

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Affect in Language Learning. Jane Arnold, Editor. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press, 1999. 346 pp.

Reviewed by
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In her introduction editor Jane Arnold defines affect broadly as "aspects of emotion, feeling, mood or attitude which condition behavior." After an overview of affect as it relates to learning, she presents seventeen articles written for this volume by contributors from different parts of the world, variously involved in language research, teaching, or teacher training from primary to higher education.

The articles are arranged in three groups. The first concerns the learner, his neurophysiology, memory, anxiety, ego boundaries, and self-esteem. The second involves the teacher, discussing reflective teaching, language learning facilitation, promotion of learner autonomy, and group dynamics. The third group deals with the interaction of teacher and students, particularly teaching methodologies that incorporate the affective approach: cooperative learning, Suggestopedia, and Neurolinguistic Programming. Specific affective teaching techniques such as visualization and humanistic activities are described in detail. An article on the unique assessment necessary with this type of learning brings this section to an end. A short epilogue touching upon the problems, politics, and pragmatics of affect in the classroom is followed by a 27-page reference section and subject and author indexes.

In the editor's words this book is addressed to "the world-wide language teaching community" and is an attempt to persuade them of the merits of affective teaching. In this respect, the book succeeds well. It is written at a level that the average language teacher can understand and does not assume extensive background in linguistics or educational theory. All of the articles, even those of a theoretical nature, make direct references to the learner and to situations in the classroom. Articles on classroom applications offer a number of carefully explained, practical activities not found in other sources. Teachers in Japan will be pleased at how many times the Japanese language learner is mentioned. All in all, the range of articles goes far to assure teachers that, no matter what type of student or philosophy of teaching they are working with, the affective approach is an indispensable component of successful language instruction.

Given that the book's purpose is to promote affective teaching, it is understandable that there is little space devoted to the problems likely to arise when using this approach. The caveats of the editor at the beginning of the book and a short, critical article at the end fail to offer remedies for such problems as cliques in the classroom and very fluid student motivation and goals, situations which have troubled us in our attempts to teach effectively at the university level. Also, some of the articles may give teachers a false sense of confidence. Neurolinguistic Programming activities, while highly effective, require a teacher to have solid training in this area. The same might be said for humanistic teaching. This point could have been stressed more.

These criticisms aside, we have found *Affect in Language Learning*, the first teacher education volume we know of devoted exclusively to affect, to present a persuasive argument for the use of affective teaching in all types of language classrooms.

Other Floors, Other Voices: A Textography of a Small University Building. John Swales. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, 1998. 230 pp.

Reviewed by
Alison Stewart
Waseda University

Other Floors, Other Voices is described by its author, John Swales, as a "textography," that is, it is an ethnographic study of the kinds of texts that are produced and of the people who produce them in one three-story building at the University of Michigan. Each floor houses a different department, each of which may as well be on an entirely different planet, from the fast-paced, constantly changing Computing Resource Site at the bottom, to the stately Herbarium engaged in the painstaking task of collecting and classifying the *flora Novo-Galiciana* in the middle, to Swales' own department, the English Language Institute, at the top. One of the main joys of this well-written book is the way Swales succeeds in capturing the flavor of each of these worlds, in making us see and understand them as insiders, and in conveying the enthusiasm and, in some cases, even passion, with which the inhabitants of these worlds engage in their work.

Swales is perhaps best known for his *Genre Analysis* (1990), a work that has had an enormous impact on the study of academic writing. Its influence persists because it goes beyond a meticulous but somewhat limited description of the "steps" and "moves" typical of academic research articles to try to explain the reason those particular rhetorical patterns exist. Swales does this by linking genre to discourse communities, groups of people who share certain goals, and who use language in distinctive ways in order to realize them. Discourse communities, Swales claims, *own* genres; and thus we need to account for them if we are to understand and teach academic writing. But what a discourse community is, or even whether it exists at all, are highly debatable questions. Two examples that Swales gives of discourse communities are a stamp collectors' club (Swales' own hobby), which has been criticized as too small and specialized to be of much use (Bex, 1996), and academic disciplines, which critics argue tend to be too big and diffuse (Johns, 1997).

Other Floors, Other Voices is Swales' response to these critics. In the final chapter, entitled "Reflections," he acknowledges the limitations of his previous work and provides a useful summary of important studies on genre and discourse communities that have been published since *Genre Analysis*. Building on this theoretical work and grounding his own view in the real people and practices that are examined in this study, he offers a reworking of the notion of discourse community, or at least one kind, namely a Place Discourse Community (PDC). In doing so, he claims to strengthen the position of the bulls against the bears in the debate about whether or not discourse communities exist. (Curiously though, he places himself amongst the undecided in his survey of the field.)

Swales ends the book by seeing how each of the three floors matches up to his definition of a PDC. The botanists qualify without question (although not just the department, but the field overall appears to be remarkably close-knit and respectful of its traditions); the English Language Institute is borderline because of the division in the department between the conservative ESL testers and the more innovative EAP faculty; the computer technicians fail outright. This evaluation, however, raises more questions than it purports to resolve. According to Swales' definition, discourse communities depend on "old timers" who can play a key authoritative role in regulating that community's discourse. Internet technology support is a recent field and computer technicians who work there are typically young and not committed to a career in the academic world. Swales notes that they produce little in the way of "texts" that might serve to create this kind of community identity. What he does not address, however, is the way in which the technical staff probably have developed genres for talking about their work and getting jobs done, both amongst themselves and with the users they assist. Inevitably, Swales' own predilections may have colored his argument. His respect for and fascination with the work of the botanists (remember Swales is a keen philatelist) may have led him to privilege the discourse traditions upheld in the Herbarium and to overlook newer but nevertheless (it may turn out) enduring discourse features of the more dynamic computer technicians.

From the theoretical perspective, the concepts of discourse communities and hence of genre remain as "slippery" (Swales, 1990. p. 33) as ever, and anyone looking to this book for clarification on those points as an aid to teaching academic English will probably come away frustrated. On the other hand, thinking about discourse communities should make us consider the "communities" in which we find ourselves at work. If your place of work is anything like mine, you may find the idea of being a member of any kind of community of practice pretty far fetched. But you may discover, like me, that this book sparks an interest in what happens on the floor above and on the floor below. A discourse community may be an ideal that your department falls short of, but there can be nothing wrong with talking to colleagues about what sort of community it is and what it could be.

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Representation and Process: Proceedings of the 3rd PacSLRF Vol. 1. Peter Robinson, Editor. Tokyo: PacSLRF, 1999. vi + 335 pp.

Pragmatics and Pedagogy: Proceedings of the 3rd PacSLRF Vol. 2. Nicholas O. Jungheim and Peter Robinson, Editors. Tokyo: PacSLRF, 1999. vi + 306 pp.

Individual Differences in Foreign Language Learning: Effects of Aptitude, Intelligence and Motivation. Steve Cornwell and Peter Robinson, Editors. Tokyo: Aoyama Gakuin University, 2000. vi + 182 pp.

Reviewed by
Jennifer Whittle
Aoyama Gakuin University

The English Department at Aoyama Gakuin University, Tokyo, recently hosted two important conferences in the field of second language acquisition (SLA). The 3rd Pacific Second Language Research Forum, held in March 1998, brought together noted SLA researchers, including Gabriele Kasper, Michael Long, Paul Meara, and Larry Selinker, from within the Pacific/South East Asia region and beyond. The second SLA conference, Individual Differences and Second Language Research Forum: Effects of Aptitude, Intelligence and Motivation, held in March 1999, included valuable information on research studies and instruments designed specifically for Japanese foreign language learners. Selected papers from the two conferences are now available. These publications provide readers with a sample of the diverse and sophisticated SLA research currently being conducted inside and outside Japan, as well as an indication of the direction in which research in second language education is headed.

A collection of papers from the PacSLRF Forum has been printed in two volumes. The first volume, *Representation and Process: Proceedings of the 3rd Pacific Second Language Research Forum, Vol. 1*, edited by Peter Robinson, deals with issues connected with the representation and processing of second languages. The thirty papers contained in the first volume have been divided into six groups. The first group of papers describes interlanguage grammars and, referring to recent work in generative grammar, explains how second language learners acquire these grammars. One question raised in the first group is how much access L2 learners have to Universal Grammar; a second question is how best to explain the transfer of L1 in L2 learning. The second set of papers studies learners of Japanese as a second language, focusing on issues of syntax, phonology, discourse, and pragmatics. The third looks at ESL learners from a number of L1 backgrounds, studying how tense-aspect distinctions are acquired. Included in this group are Chinese students of Japanese. The fourth section, phonology and L2 processing, deals with the processing of second language speech in the areas of phonetics, phonology, and syntax. The fifth examines the relationship between interlanguage development and variation in L2 use. Here the controversial issue of fossilization is addressed. The final set of papers addresses second language attrition. Factors such as the effect of age and proficiency on second language loss, and the course of attrition are considered. Students of English, Japanese, and Chinese as a second language are examined in these studies.

The second volume of PacSLRF papers, *Pragmatics and Pedagogy: Proceedings of the Pacific Second Language Research Forum, Vol. 2*, edited by Nicholas O. Jungheim and Peter Robinson, addresses issues related to the acquisition of second language pragmatics and pedagogy. The twenty-eight papers in this volume have been organized in five sections. The first group of papers are concerned with the acquisition of rules governing second language use in oral and written communication. This section includes the plenary given by Gabriele Kasper, who discusses various methods used in second language pragmatics research, focusing on the potential of self-report. The second section addresses issues in the acquisition of second language vocabulary. Of particular interest is the plenary speech by Paul Meara, who argues the need for English language teachers to rethink their one-sided approach to work on vocabulary acquisition, a consequence of focusing almost exclusively on H. E. Palmer's research agenda. Also included in the second section are discussions of the roles of learning strategies and beliefs, and the effects of formal and informal settings on vocabulary development. The third section studies issues in L2 pedagogic task design, such as task complexity and the connection between task familiarity and improvement. The effects of focus-on-form communicative tasks on second language acquisition are also considered. The fourth group of papers addresses issues related to L2 pedagogy, such as the impact of explicit learning and implicit learning on second language acquisition, and the effects of dialogue on second language writing. Student attitude towards pair work and its effect on L2 learning is also discussed. The fifth and final set of papers examines the relationship between L2 listening and the development of reading. Included in this group is a method for improving L2 reading speed.

A selection of papers from the second SLA conference, introduced by the editors, Steve Cornwell and Peter Robinson, have been published in one volume entitled *Individual Differences in Foreign Language Learning: Effects of Aptitude, Intelligence and Motivation*. The eleven papers contained in the collection outline research into individual differences conducted in secondary and tertiary Japanese classrooms, as well as in Taiwan, Turkey, the U.K., and the U.S.A. Two central SLA issues provide a unifying theme for the papers. The first issue is how individual differences in cognitive abilities affect the development of second language knowledge and skills. The second issue is how differences in affective and personality variables contribute to L2 learning success. These include factors such as motivation, anxiety, learning styles and attitudes towards learning English. Several papers in the collection look at the influence of attitudes and motivation on English acquisition. Others examine the relationship between ethnic status, social identity and L2 proficiency. Of particular interest to those in Japan is the paper from McClelland explaining the need to take into account the unique sociocultural context of Japan and adapt test measures specifically to Japanese learners. Other Japan-related papers provide information on instruments which measure aptitude and motivation in Japanese. Translated versions of Gardner and Lambert's Attitudes and Motivation Test Battery and Sick and Irie's language aptitude instrument developed for Japanese foreign language students are two examples. Certainly, the availability of instruments designed specifically for the Japanese learner is an exciting find.

These publications contain more than 70 papers providing readers with a comprehensive sample of the second language research now being conducted in Japan, as well as an opportunity to review papers given by leading SLA researchers overseas. Together, the proceedings provide an in-depth current perspective on a variety of important second language issues and suggest the direction of much future Japanese SLA research. They will no doubt be valuable reading for educators in Japan for a number of years to come.

To order the PacSLRF or Individual Differences conference proceedings, contact Peter Robinson, Department of English, Aoyama Gakuin University, 4-4-25 Shibuya, Shibuya-ku, Tokyo 150-8366, or by e-mail at <peterr@cl.aoyama.ac.jp>.

Information for Contributors

All submissions must conform to *JALT Journal* Editorial Policy and Guidelines.

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JALT Journal 日本語編集者　木村真治

JALT Journal 第22巻　第2号

2000年 10月20日　印刷

2000年 11月 1日　発行

編集人　サンドラ・フォトス
発行人　トーマス・シモンズ
発行所　全国語学教育学会事務局
〒110-0016 東京都台東区台東1-37-9 アーバンエッジビル５Ｆ
TEL (03)3837-1630; FAX (03)3837-1631
印刷所　コーシンシャ株式会社
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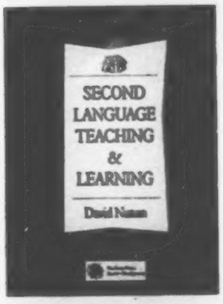

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